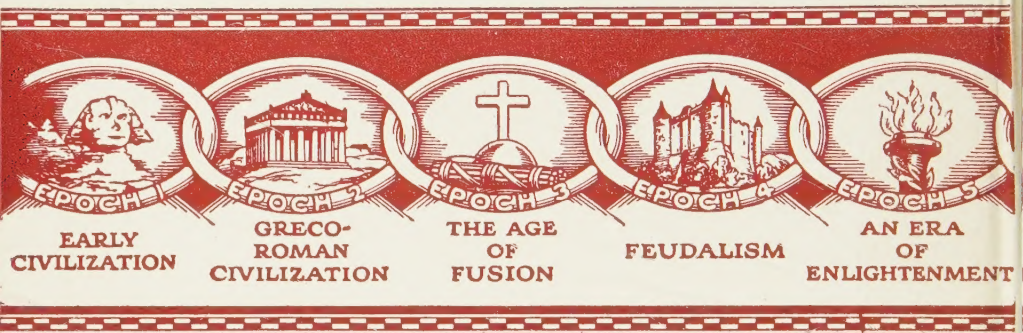


EPOCHS OF WORLD PROGRESS



BARNARD AND ROORBACH



EARLY
CIVILIZATION



GRECO-
ROMAN
CIVILIZATION



THE AGE
OF
FUSION

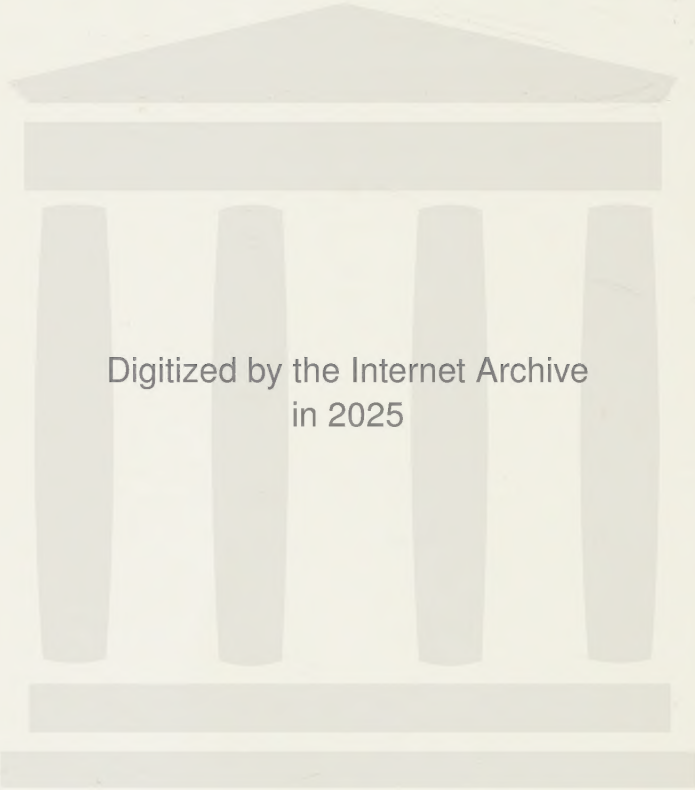


FEUDALISM



AN ERA
OF
ENLIGHTENMENT





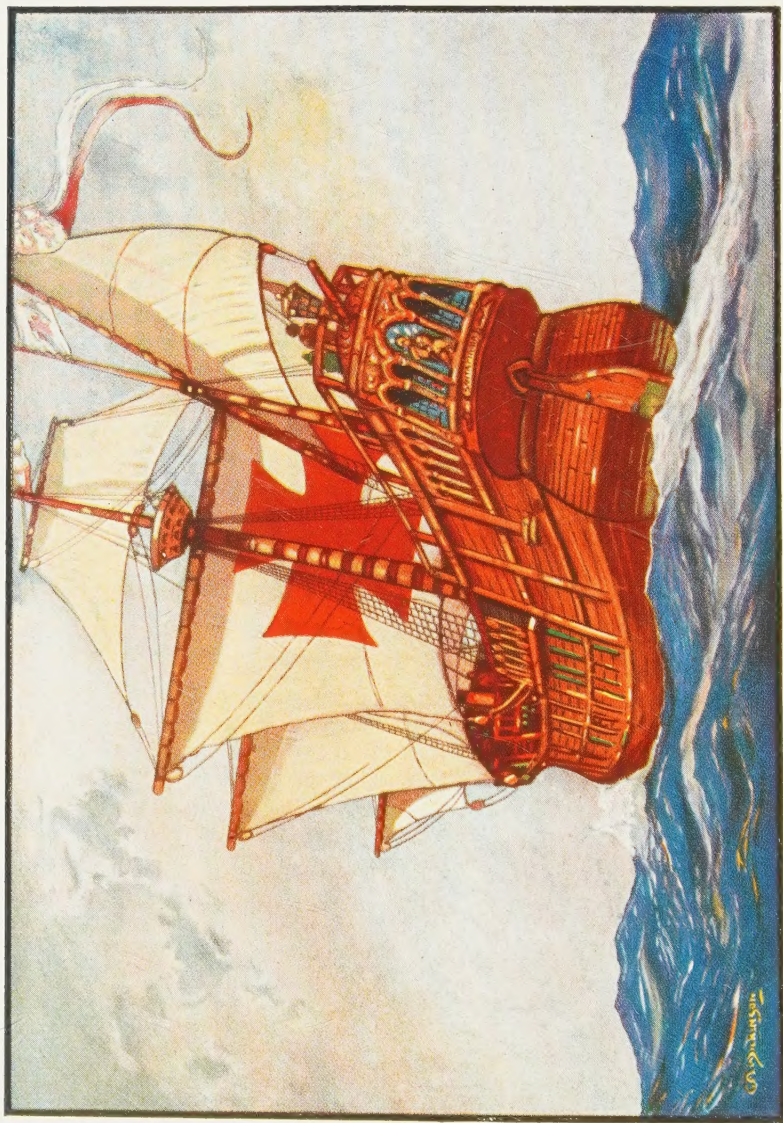
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THE SANTA MARIA

The seas have ever been the roads of commerce. Mediterranean merchants, constantly seeking new ports in which to trade, new routes by which to reach them, saw golden treasure in the East, and swung their ships to greet the rising sun. Phœnician and Roman triremes, argosies of Greece, and stately galleons of Spain all sailed the sea lanes to the Orient, bartering the ores and oils of Europe for ivory, silks, and spices of the East.

Expansion and development have ever had a westward trend. But the great western sea, the unexplored Atlantic, stopped them at the coast. The *Santa Maria* seeking, too, to reach the East, dared an untried voyage, followed the setting sun, and found the West.

The oceans of the world are no longer barriers to progress. Where formerly they separated continents, today they are connecting links. Progress has made the world united, bound by transportation, communication, economic and political interdependence. Ships still carry treasures to all corners of the globe: may their most priceless cargo in the days to come be a sense of worldwide understanding, and of a new internationalism.



EPOCHS OF WORLD PROGRESS

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PREFACE

The great value of history in the school curriculum is to show human progress, to indicate the slow and laborious steps by which man has learned to cooperate with his fellows and lead the group life. From this it follows that the pupils must begin where the story itself begins and end where it ends. In other words, there must be some sort of general survey of world progress, and not an intensive study of a particular section of history, ancient or modern.

Moreover, this survey should include Asia, Africa, and our own Western Hemisphere, and not Europe alone. The far corners of the world are brought to our doors every morning by the daily newspapers. Our economic interests are world wide, and our political relationships are following our commerce. We can not escape, if we would, the responsibilities that come with being a world power. EPOCHS OF WORLD PROGRESS has been planned by the authors to meet the needs and facilitate the work of a World Survey course.

Our young people are not ready for the minutiae of history, for a mass of detail that can have interest and meaning only for a history specialist. What is needed is the drama of history, with each act or scene fairly complete in itself and yet all moving on to a climax.

By the plan which we may call the *epoch method* the events of World History may be grouped in ten consecutive but overlapping Epochs. These Epochs are not mere time allotments or divisions, arbitrarily defined decades or centuries, though of course the time element plays its part. Each Epoch includes a series of events which together make up a distinct unit of human progress. This will be made clearer by reading the *orientation paragraphs* which precede each Epoch.

In each Epoch care has been taken to emphasize those facts which give the pupil a clearer understanding of the present. A wealth of reference and other laboratory material is to be found at the ends of the chapters. Committee reports and class discussions will lend zest to the work, and the class will gain in power of investigation, in judgment of historical data, and in historical imagination.

Dates are scattered plentifully throughout this volume in order to give a time sequence that will steady the reader. But only a few of these dates, those of world-wide significance, need be memorized. For history is a *story*, an ever unfolding drama of man's upward climb, and nothing must come between that story and the reader.

The authors are grateful for the fine scholarship and the care and skill that have been so generously bestowed upon both text and illustrations by others who have become interested in this venture.

J. L. B.

A. O. R.

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PART I
EPOCHS OF WORLD PROGRESS

EPOCH ONE

EARLY CIVILIZATION

The first great Epoch in world progress will be the story of Early Civilization. It will tell of early man's primitive methods of securing food, clothing, and shelter; of his first inventions; of how he learned gradually to domesticate animals, till the soil, cultivate crops, and evolve government. It will contrast his life in the distant past with our immediate present.

It will tell of the progress and achievements of the Egyptians along the Nile River in northern Africa, and of the peoples within the Fertile Crescent in Western Asia.

There were early civilizations in Eastern Asia—China and India—but their story will be taken up in this and later Epochs only as they begin to come in contact with the West.

CHAPTER I

A BACKWARD LOOK

Our twentieth century is a marvelous age. After centuries of toil, struggle, and hardship, man has learned to use the materials and forces of nature. Gradually he has found out how to utilize animals, wind, water, steam, gas, and electricity to aid him in his work. Each of these achievements has marked a great milestone in human progress.

A Machine Age. Today large industries, equipped with high-power machinery, produce much of man's food and clothing. The modern home is equipped with steam, gas, electric lights, and other conveniences. Railroads, automobiles, ocean liners, and aeroplanes enable one to go quickly from place to place. The telephone, the telegraph, the wireless, and the radio make it possible for people to communicate with one another from distant parts of the world. These and thousands of other inventions throughout the ages have lightened the burden of mankind and added to his comfort.

Early Beginnings. But far back in the dim, distant past man depended upon human muscle alone to secure the necessities of life. His home was a tree or a cave. His methods of traveling were walking or swimming. He communicated with his fellow men by grunt, grimace, or gesture. His bare fists were his only weapons of offense or defense. His was a narrow and limited world.

Evidence and Original Sources. We learn about the events of these far away times by means of what is known as evidence or proof. To get this evidence scholars have had to go to what the historian calls "original sources." In later history these original sources are very often the writings of the great figures in history or other monuments of the times. But all our knowledge of prehistoric times depends upon

other sources than written documents. Tools, weapons, pictures, carvings on stones and in caves, and the remains of the dead have been found, and the evidence pieced together and studied. Some of this interesting source material has been made available for use in our world history classes.

The Earth Before the Coming of Man. There are no original sources to tell us exactly when man first appeared upon the earth. Great periods of time elapsed before the earth was a fit place for man's habitation. And we know that when he did appear he found a world stored with vast natural resources. He found a world filled with all kinds of herbs, berries, and fruits, a world inhabited by many strange and interesting animals, some of which have served him in good stead. Man appeared superior to all other living things. The world as he found it was his heritage from a great and mysterious past. How man has taken advantage of his heritage is the story this book will try to tell.

Man's Upward Climb. It has been a long, long climb from the days of prehistoric man to the present. Our early ancestors used simple methods to procure their food, clothing, and shelter. There were no such complicated economic and social conditions as we have today. But as we move further along in the study of the world's history, the story becomes more and more confusing. Nations gradually emerge. A system of international trade and finance is devised. Conspiracies are formed; wars are waged; inventions are perfected; reforms are adopted to meet various social ills, and often with little uniformity.

Need for Classification. All this makes the story of human progress difficult to grasp. If some method is not used to guide us and help us keep our bearings, we shall soon be lost. For this reason we have divided our story into ten consecutive but overlapping parts called epochs. Each epoch tells its story of distinct contribution to human progress. History, however, has not been a steady, even story of man's progress. Often, as the story unfolds, it will seem as though mankind were taking a backward step or that civilization seemed doomed. But always there have been certain influences at work—possibly unseen at the time—which have made possible the onward march of civilization.

The Dawn of Civilization. Civilization began when man learned to master the forces of nature and to use her boundless store of material goods. So our first great epoch in world progress—which we shall call *EARLY CIVILIZATION*—will begin at that point. It will tell how man discovered the use of fire; how he gradually invented a language and a system of writing; how he learned to domesticate animals, till the soil, build cities, and evolve governments. These were the achievements of early man. His problems at first were few, because his wants were few; but as he progressed, these problems increased in number and became more complicated.

CHAPTER II

EARLY MAN

Neanderthal Man. Early man must have been a crude, brutish looking animal, if we are to judge by the pictures scientists give us of the Neanderthal (ne-an'der-tal') man. They get this picture from the reconstructed remains of a skull, upper arms, ribs, and thigh bones found in a cave in Dusseldorf (düs'ël-dôrf), Germany, in 1857. It is believed that this Neanderthal man must have lived about fifty thousand years ago. Other remains found in different parts of the world give us much the same picture, some of lower types and others of higher types.

Paleolithic or Old Stone Age. Our greatest sources of knowledge today, however, are the tools and weapons that have been found. It is around these implements that the story of early man is built. At first man must have used nothing for offense or defense but his bare hands. Later, sticks and stones were probably used. Of the wooden implements we have no remains, but of the stone tools and weapons many have been found. Those first stone weapons were crude, rough, and unpolished, and for this reason anthropologists have called this the Paleolithic (pā'lê-ô-lith'ic) or Old Stone Age.

Economic Needs of Early Man. The greatest problem that faced early man was that of obtaining a living—food, clothing, and shelter. How was he to get this living? He wandered from place to place looking for berries, nuts, and herbs. He became a hunter. He was in danger of being destroyed by the larger, wilder animals. He could not cope with them with his bare hands, so he invented weapons. His first inventions were imitations. His club was shaped like the human arm, with the doubled fist. His sling was used to throw rocks and stones, in much the same way as he threw them with hand and arm. In the water he probably learned to float on the drifting logs, and his first invention in transportation was probably a log dug out in the center, so that he could sit in it rather than on it.

Clothing. Clothing was usually another need of early man. This would depend upon the climatic conditions of his homeland. If it was extremely warm, he probably did what many savages do today in warm climates, he went naked or wore a little clothing merely for ornament. If it was cold, and there are plenty of evidences that in certain portions of the world it was bitterly cold, he wore the skins of animals for protection from the weather.

Fire. We have no record of a time when man did not know the use of fire. The first fires were probably started by volcanic action, or by lightning. Man at first undoubtedly feared fire, but as time went on he found he could control it. It gave him warmth and protected him from the wild animals, who still feared it. Later, he learned how to make fire by rubbing sticks or striking flints together or by the boring process. This invention, handed down to civilized man from prehistoric times, was hardly improved upon until the latter part of the nineteenth century A.D., when matches were invented.

Shelter. The third economic need of early man was shelter. His first protection from the wind and rain and wild animals was the caves. Abundant proof of this remains in pictures of animals sketched on the walls of these caves by the early cave dwellers. From these crude drawings we get an idea of the animals that must have been familiar to the early cave-men. The bison, horse, ibex, cave bear, and rein-



*From Chapin: Introduction to the Study of
Social Evolution*

TREE DWELLING

In the tiger infested jungles of India, tree dwellers can still be found.

deer are all pictured, in some places by beautiful colored paintings. Animals appeared carved on their tools and weapons also. Much of our source material for this is found in France and Spain. Besides caves, there are evidences that go to show that in certain places man sought shelter in the trees, and thus arises the story of the Tree Men.

Language. By imitation early man made other useful things besides weapons. For example, his drinking gourd was probably suggested to him by its cup-shaped appearance, resembling his two hands cupped together as he drank from some clear pool. The greatest invention of this period, however, was language. There was a time when only gesture and grimace, grunt and growl, could express man's ideas. Gradually, certain guttural sounds

came to mean certain definite things, and so through the ages language was formed.

Tribal Wars. These early men must have traveled in hordes, for protection. Such wandering groups were probably all from the same family, ruled over by the oldest member. Their life was hard. Often they wandered for days and days and found nothing to eat. On such occasions the weakest members of the tribe would perish and only the

strongest survive. One tribe might come upon another tribe occupying territory rich in food supplies. Strife would ensue, and it was war to the death. No prisoners were taken, no slaves were made, for these would bring an added burden of getting enough food for more people. Later, when food was more plentiful and regular in supply, and when slaves could be made use of in tending cattle and working in the fields, prisoners of war were spared and made slaves. But in the hunting and fishing stage, when it took thousands of acres of land to support one family or small clan, we need not wonder that defeat in war meant death.

Religion. Prehistoric man must have had a religion. At an early period he evidently believed in a life after death. We arrive at this last conclusion from the fact that buried with his dead are often found the tools, weapons, and animals that the dead man used on earth. These would stand him in good stead in that other world which he had visited so often in his dreams. The forces of nature, too, played an important part in his religion. Thunder and lightning were deified by nearly all peoples when we first find them in authentic history.

Neolithic or New Stone Age. Another milestone in history was passed when man learned to grind the edges of his tools, to smooth and sharpen his stone implements. He built wooden huts, he equipped his home with stools, chairs, and chests. The women learned how to harden clay in fire, how to care for plants and animals, and how to spin and weave. Jars, baskets, and pottery were made.

Lake Dwellers. In the winter of 1854 the water in Lake Zurich (zōō'rīk), Switzerland, had fallen so low that there were discovered the foundations of wooden platforms which had been buried under the water for many years. These platforms were supported by long rows of piles made from the split trunks of trees, and driven close together into the bed of the lake. The walls of the dwellings, it appears, were fastened together by woven branches. The roofs were thatched. Many of these houses were in groups, forming a small village. Communication from house to house was made possible by platforms. A larger platform connected the village with the land.



LAKE DWELLINGS

The long platform from the village to the land could easily be defended against wild beasts or other enemies. An imaginary drawing.

Manner of Living. This strange way in which some of our early ancestors lived had several advantages. First of all, the garbage and refuse collected in the homes was sent to the bottom of the lake through trap doors in the floors. It was in this refuse that much of our evidence was found as to how the people lived. The remains of dogs, oxen, sheep, and goats have been found in the lake bottoms. These animals therefore must have been domesticated at this early period. Nuts, cereals, wheat, and barley have also been found, denoting a knowledge of agriculture. In the second place, over the long platform which connected the lake dweller with the land he could drive his domesticated animals out in the morning, let them pasture during the day, and bring them home to safety in the evening. He himself could work in the fields, returning home at night with his family safe from the wild animals that roamed the shore.

Sources of Information. The implements and tools unearthed in this *débris* include bone pins, stone axes, horn buttons, wooden bowls, and spear heads. The Lake Dwellers

used linen, could spin and weave, and wore leather shoes. Many of their weapons were made of bronze, and we know by this that the Lake Dwellers lived not only in the New Stone Age, but also in the ensuing age, the Age of Metals. Fish hooks made from the bones of animals point to another industry, that of fishing. It is just such remains as those described above that enable us to get more and more light on the past. Many "finds" in other parts of the world are continually making the story clearer.



PASTORAL LIFE

Pastoral Stage. It was another step when man learned how to tame certain animals, domesticate them, and so secure a regular supply of animal food. Instead of hunting the animals for food he began to take them with him, and thus a need for pasture land developed. Of course, he could not settle down in cities yet. His life was still nomadic—one of continual wanderings. However, in this second stage of economic development it took less territory to support a family than it did in the hunting and fishing stage. The pastoral stage enabled two or three persons to live on one square mile

of territory. Many peoples were in this state of development when we come to the first written records.

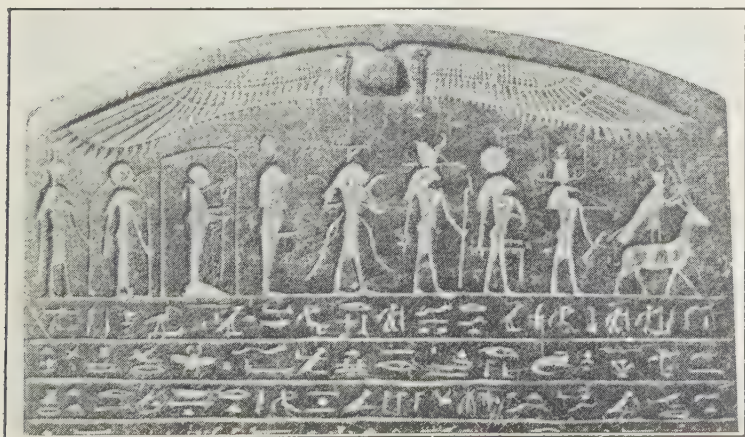
Glacial Periods. Search for food was not the only reason why early man traveled from place to place. So far as scientists have been able to find out, there were four great glacial periods in the earth's history. For several reasons, they explain, portions of the earth from time to time have become very cold, and great ice fields have slowly crept down from the northern mountains, moving southward. Men and animals retreated before these glaciers. The last glacial period, which probably occurred about fifty thousand years ago, covered portions of Europe, Asia, and North America. Then little by little this great sea of ice melted, and as it did so man came northward again. This may account for the reindeer being known to early man in Spain, for always the reindeer has lived in the colder climates.

Agricultural Stage. When man learned to plant the wild grain and to till the soil, he made another great advance. We have seen how in the hunting and fishing stage he depended upon berries and fruits in their wild state. Now he learned to cultivate the plants as he had previously learned to domesticate the animals. Different theories are advanced in explanation of how it happened. One is that the woman, whose time was taken up with home duties, was the first agriculturist. Remaining at home to care for the children, or watch the fire, or prepare the meal, she became interested in some flower or plant near her home. She watched it grow. She saw seeds scattered by it. She saw other plants grow from those seeds. In this way she learned to plant and to cultivate grains and fruits.

Beginning of Slavery. Slavery probably began in the pastoral stage. Prisoners taken in battle would be placed in charge of the herds. However, this would require but few people, and slavery did not become a well developed institution at that time. In the agricultural stage, however, the work of caring for the fields was tedious and hard. Early man disliked work and considered it a disgrace. Therefore, prisoners of war were now taken more freely than before, in order that they might do this disagreeable work.

Early Methods of Farming. Agriculture in this stage was crude. The implements were of the simplest character. A stick to dig up the soil was all that early man could boast of in the way of a plow. He knew nothing of irrigation. He had not learned to utilize the beasts.

The Metals. What is known as the Age of Metals in history is of comparatively recent date. We have seen that the Lake Dwellers were familiar with bronze. Copper was probably the first of the metals used by primitive man. He undoubtedly found out by accident how to get the copper from its ore. But copper is soft and tools made from it are not durable. In China, Hungary, and England copper ore and tinstone are found together. Another accident of melting may have united these two metals, and thus the stronger and more durable metal, bronze, was formed. When the curtain rises on authentic history we find copper being mined by the Egyptians (*ê-jîp'shâns*) on the Sinai (*sî'nî*) peninsula. Both the Babylonians (*bâb'î-lô'nî-âns*) and the Egyptians were using bronze implements as early as 3000 B.C. Iron, harder and more durable than either bronze or copper, was worked by the Egyptians as early as 1500 B.C. The use



From a tablet in the Metropolitan Museum

HIEROGLYPHICS

An Egyptian picture of a sacrificial procession, with hieroglyphics.

of these metals brought about a profound change in the life of early peoples. Not until the great Industrial Revolution, many centuries later, was there so marked an effect on the history of man.

Hieroglyphics. One of the greatest inventions of pre-historic man was writing. Authentic history depends on written documents—care always being taken that these are true. It is believed that man first expressed his ideas in writing by the picture method. After a time, his pictures came to represent ideas; and still later, these pictures, which had taken on more of the form of characters, came to represent sounds. This took thousands and thousands of years. And when we first unravel this sound-writing of the Egyptians, which is known as hieroglyphics (hī'ēr-ō-glīf'iks) the clouds lift and authentic history begins.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. What is History? What is an Epoch? What is Evidence? What are Sources? Would two people who saw the same thing at the same time be likely to see it in the same way? Try it in class, and then discuss the value of evidence.
2. Why were great buildings impossible in the Old Stone Age?
3. How do the economic needs of early man differ from your needs?
4. What part did imitation play in the life of early man? What part does it play now?
5. Can a man make himself understood by gesture and grimace today? How would it handicap him to have only this method of communication?
6. Why has government become more complicated as man has become more civilized?
7. How did the invention of sharp edged tools improve man's living conditions?
8. What advances in civilization were made by the Lake Dweller?
9. Why was slavery not a moral issue in primitive times, while it was a moral issue in our own country's history before the Civil War?
10. How did copper, bronze, and iron change the life of man? What part do they play in your life?
11. If one hundred modern men were shipwrecked on a tropical island, how might government evolve? Contrast this with the way government arose among early men.

12. Compare modern methods of communication, transportation, heating, lighting, cultivation of plants, domestication of animals, home making, warfare, and means of making a living with those of prehistoric times. This can be done by means of compositions, charts, pictures, and cartoons.

For information in addition to that contained in the text, see Starr's *Some First Steps in Human Progress*, Chapters I-XXII.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

From the following references make reports on the chapters named below:

- a. MARSHALL, *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, Chapters I, II, and III, on the inventions and social organization of Early Man.
- b. GUERBER, *Story of Our Civilization*, Chapters I, II, III, and IV, on the early beginnings of Prehistoric Man.
- c. VAN LOON, *Story of Mankind*, Chapters I, II, and III, on our Earliest Ancestors.

From the above reports be prepared to express an opinion as to which are the three or four most important achievements of early man.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

WELLS	<i>Outline of History</i> , Vol. I	Macmillan
WELLS	<i>How the Present Came from the Past</i>	Macmillan
ELY & WICKER	<i>Elementary Principles of Economics</i> , pp. 28-36	Macmillan
WASHBURN	<i>Story of the Earth</i>	Century
HOLBROOK	<i>Cave, Mound, and Lake Dwellers</i>	Heath
CHAPIN	<i>Introduction to the Study of Social Evolution</i>	Century

HISTORICAL NOVELS

LONDON	<i>The Call of the Wild</i>	Grosset
	<i>White Fang</i>	Grosset
BURROUGHS	<i>The Land That Time Forgot</i>	McClurg
DOYLE	<i>The Lost World</i>	Doran

CHAPTER III

THE NILE VALLEY

The Problem of Early Historic Man. Agriculture played an important part in the life of man at the dawn of recorded history. His problem then was to seek, find, and hold the most fertile territory. Many wars unknown to us today must have taken place while those favored spots were being won and lost.

Earliest Civilizations. Our earliest civilizations began in just such territories—in lands where agricultural products thrive with the least effort, and where building material, pasture land, and water made it possible to secure food and clothing and to erect shelter. The great Nile Valley in Africa was such a place. Another was the territory between the Tigris (tī'grīs) and Euphrates (û-frā'tēz) rivers in Asia, called Mesopotamia (mēs'-ô-pô-tā'mī-à). This was a part of that great semicircle which starts on the southeastern shore of the Mediterranean (měd'i-tē-rā'nē-ān) Sea and ends at the Persian Gulf, where the Tigris and Euphrates empty their waters. This fertile fringe, with the mountains to the north of it and the Arabian desert to the south, forms what Dr. Breasted has so appropriately named the "Fertile Crescent." There is some doubt at present whether the Nile Valley or Mesopotamia, if either, is the birthplace of our earliest civilizations; but archæologists—men who unearth and study the relics of ancient peoples—are continually finding new material bearing on this subject.

Egypt. In the drama about to be played, however, we find in these two centers of early civilization great conflicts being waged and great events taking place which, more than any others, have affected the European history that has followed. In starting our story we shall begin with Egypt, for we know more about this country than any other.

Climate. Snow and frost never occur in Egypt, and rainstorms are hardly known. There are but two seasons, spring and summer. Spring lasts from October until May, and sum-



THE NILE TODAY

This scene, with its pyramids, palms, and boats, has probably changed very little through many centuries.

mer holds sway the rest of the time. What a dry, barren country this would be if it were not for the river Nile!

The Nile. The Nile, rising in interior Africa, flows northward to the Mediterranean Sea. It is fed by the rains and melting snows from the mountains of Abyssinia. The valley thus formed, from the first cataract to the Mediterranean, is over seven hundred miles long. It is from ten to twenty miles wide until it reaches a point about one hundred and fifty miles from the sea. Here it spreads out into a broad alluvial plain, triangular in shape like the Greek letter "Delta" and hence called by that name.

Natural Irrigation. The delta is also designated as Lower Egypt, while the long narrow valley is called Upper Egypt. Every summer the Nile overflows its banks throughout its entire length, but after a few months the waters recede, leaving a fine black sediment. This process of natural irrigation and fertilization gives to Egypt one of the most fertile valleys in the world.

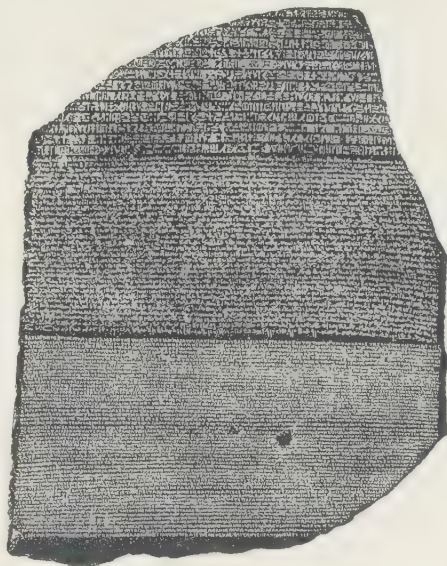
Races of Man. There are several branches of the white or Caucasian (kô-kā'shān) race of men. The Semites (sēm'itz)—including the Hebrews, the Phœnicians (fē-nīsh'āns), the Babylonians, and the Assyrians (ā-sīr'ī-ānz)—form one branch; while the Aryan (ār'yān) or Indo-Europeans—including the Hindus (hīn'dōōz) of India, the Medes (mēdz) and Persians, the Italians and Greeks, and many of the inhabitants of western and central Europe—form another branch. The blacks, or Ethiopians (ē'thī-ō'pī-ānz) form another distinct race.

Early Egyptians a Mixed Race. We do not know where the first inhabitants of Egypt came from, but all the evidence we have points to the fact that they were a mixed people. Their language was partly Semitic, but their physical characteristics were altogether different. There must have been a great scramble of different peoples for this rich land—the "Gift of the Nile," as Herodotus (Hê-rōd'ō-tūs) called it. Ethiopians from the south settled in southern Egypt. People from Asia—"conquerors from the east," as some historians call them—came from Arabia (A-rā'bīa) and settled along Upper Egypt, gradually pushing northward. Semitic tribes no doubt came in from the borderland of Asia and Africa

and settled Lower Egypt. These races gradually blended, which accounts for the complex characteristics of the Egyptians at this period.

The Rosetta Stone.

For many centuries the history of Egypt remained obscure. In 1798 Napoleon (nā-pō'lê-ŭn) Bonaparte (bō'na-pärt) landed an army in Egypt, for the purpose of cutting Great Britain off from her colonies in India and at the same time threatening her commerce along the Mediterranean. The expedition was a failure, and its only importance to us here is that it opened the way to our knowledge of Ancient Egypt. One of Napoleon's young officers found



THE ROSETTA STONE

The key to the ancient Egyptian hieroglyphics now in the British Museum, London.

at Rosetta (rô-zê't'à), at the mouth of the Nile, a block of black basalt known today as the Rosetta Stone. This became the key to the ancient hieroglyphics mentioned in the last chapter. The writing on the upper part of the stone was in hieroglyphics; below this were later Egyptian characters; while the lower part was in Greek.

Jean Champollion. A great French scholar, Jean Champollion, (shān-pol-yôn'), after working on the subject for twenty years, proved that these three inscriptions told the same story and that he had discovered how to read both the early hieroglyphics and the later Egyptian script. He had compared the Greek letters, a known language, with the other two. With the knowledge thus gained it was possible to read

the inscriptions on those massive ruins which are so numerous along the Nile. The great pyramids, obelisks (ǒb'ělšks), temples, and monuments now poured forth their story.

Irrigation. The early settlers along the Nile probably settled in tribes, all of whom claimed one common ancestor. One of their first problems was the control of the Nile overflow. Dikes had to be built and ditches dug for the control and distribution of the water, and large reservoirs had to be constructed to store up the water for use when it was needed.

City States. All this required cooperation among the peoples. Gradually the leader of one tribe would conquer other neighboring tribes, and the government thus set up to rule the several tribes was known as a city state. All along the Nile, in Lower and Upper Egypt, these city states flourished. Finally, about 3400 B.C. they were all united under one King, Menes.

Menes. Menes took the title of Pharaoh, meaning "Great House," and all Egyptian rulers after him are known as Pharaohs (fǎ'rōs). His capital was at Memphis; his rule was absolute. In return for the allegiance paid him by his subjects he promised to protect them from foreign foes, keep up the dikes, and build reservoirs. It is doubtful, however, whether the methods he used were relished by the great mass of his subjects.

Memphis. The story of how Menes united the two Egypts, Lower and Upper, and placed the double crown upon his own head, turned the course of the Nile River, and then built Memphis at the juncture of the two Egypts so that he could command both, may be a myth. But the city, the temple, and the embankment are there, and Egypt became a united Kingdom. The pictures and writings found in the tombs tell us something of the government, life, and religion of the people of this period.

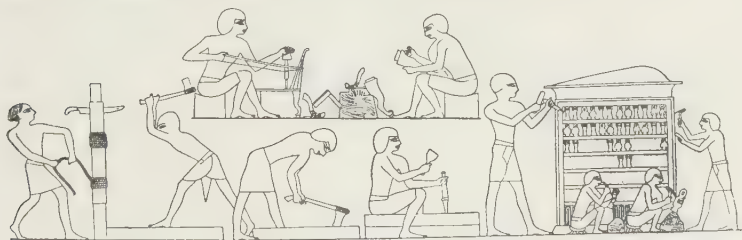
Government in Egypt. The king parceled out large tracts of land, called "nomes," to his favorites, who ruled over the lands as governors. The great mass of people who lived in these territories were hardly better than slaves. Each year they had to give so much of their grain, poultry, and stock to the governor as taxes. These in turn were sent on

to the king and placed in common storehouses. The keeper of these storehouses became one of the most important personages in the kingdom.

Nobles. The nobles, or overseers of the peasants, lived in large wooden houses, covered with mud-brick. They had many servants to wait on them. Extensive gardens surrounded their homes. They spent their spare time hunting and fishing.

Peasants. The peasants, however, had an altogether different existence. They lived in low, mud-brick huts. They worked in the fields, raising the large crops of wheat, barley, and flax. They gathered the fig, threshed the wheat, and tended the sheep, goats, and cattle. They worked from sun up to sun down. Most of the fruits of their labor were taken for rent. The women did the spinning and weaving, in addition to other household duties.

Slaves. Not everyone worked in the fields, or lived a life of ease. Thousands of men no better than slaves worked on the canals, built reservoirs, and helped in the construction of the vast pyramids. The pictures often show a hard task-master over them, whip in hand ready to strike as soon as any of these poor people loitered in their work.



*From the Metropolitan Museum
From a wall-painting in the tomb of Rekhmara at Thebes*

EGYPTIAN CARPENTERS

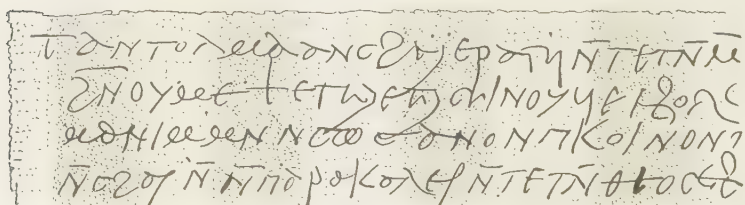
Pieces of wood to be sawed lengthwise were first lashed to an upright post (at left, in drawing). The bow drill shown above is being used to bore holes in the seat of a chair. The drawing shows the use of axes, adzes, saws, and chisels similar to modern tools. At the right are cabinet makers adorning a shrine with inlaid ornaments of ivory and ebony.

Soldiers, Artisans, Traders. The soldiers were a privileged class, paying no taxes. There were many artisans, too,

skilled in their professions: glass makers, weavers, jewelers, potters, cabinet makers, and ship builders. The Egyptians early learned to trade with other people. One of the old kings had built a canal connecting the Nile with the Red Sea, and their ships were able to ply between the Mediterranean Sea and the Indian Ocean. We are certain that about 2900 B.C. the Egyptians were trading with the Phœnicians. As money was not used by these peoples, they would trade the products of one country for those of the other.

Foreign Commerce. Queen Hatsu, who reigned about a thousand years after Menes, had a fleet of five vessels built in some harbor on the coast of the Red Sea. The boats were equipped with both oars and sails. These vessels, well manned, sailed down the Red Sea bound either for southern Arabia or for Africa. Here the Egyptians traded their products for the gold, silver, ebony, ivory, and leopard skins of the natives. When the merchant fleet returned, Queen Hatsu had a great celebration.

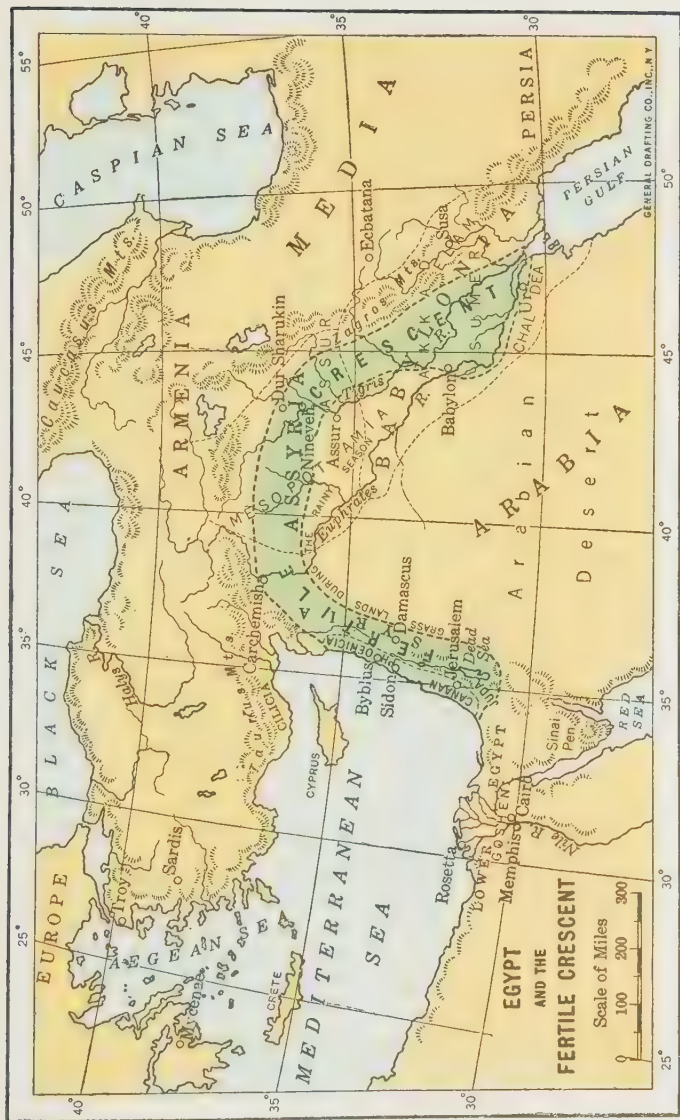
Scribes. The varied industries and commerce required a large amount of clerical work. The Egyptians had learned to make paper from the papyrus reeds found along the Nile. They scratched their hieroglyphics on this paper with a pointed reed, using red and black ink made of vegetable matter and soot. These scribes, recruited from all ranks, did the clerical work for the government and often rose to high positions.



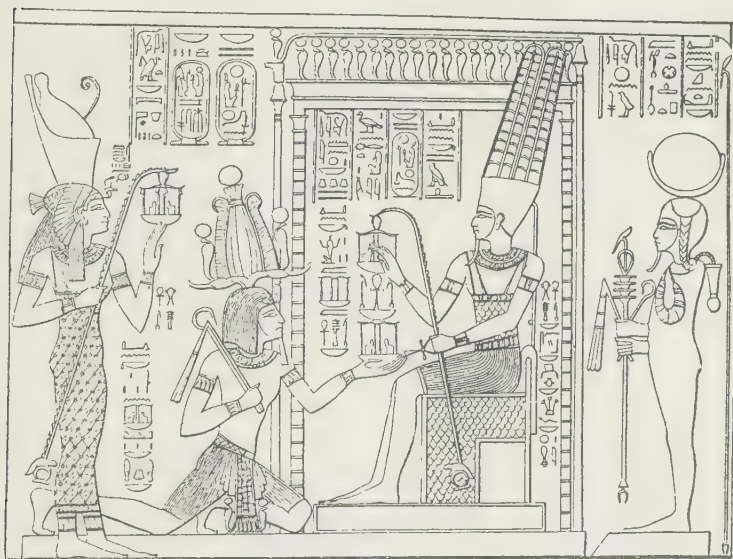
From an original fragment at the Metropolitan Museum

FRAGMENT OF PAPYRUS WITH INSCRIPTION

This paper was made from the pith of the papyrus sedge which grew along the Nile. While still moist the pith was pounded out in a thin sheet and later rolled on two rods.



Religion. The religion of Egypt was known as polytheism (pŏl'ī-thē-īz'm), which means that many gods were worshiped. The sun, the moon, the stars, and the Nile were all deified. Many of the animals were worshiped; and as though this were not enough, the Egyptians had another god, their King. The Kings of Egypt each claimed to be the "son of the sun," and for a long time their subjects believed them. The chief gods, however, were Osiris (ō-sī'rīs), who represented the Nile and all life-giving things, and Ra, who represented the sun. Each local tribe had its god, and each city paid homage to the particular god or animal that it held sacred.



KING RAMESES BEFORE AMMON RA
The Pharaohs claimed descent from this god.

Belief in Immortality. The Egyptians believed in a life after death. They thought that as soon as a person died he went to a lower world and entered the "Hall of Truth." Here he was judged in the presence of Osiris and forty-two assistants, in the following way. A pair of scales was brought

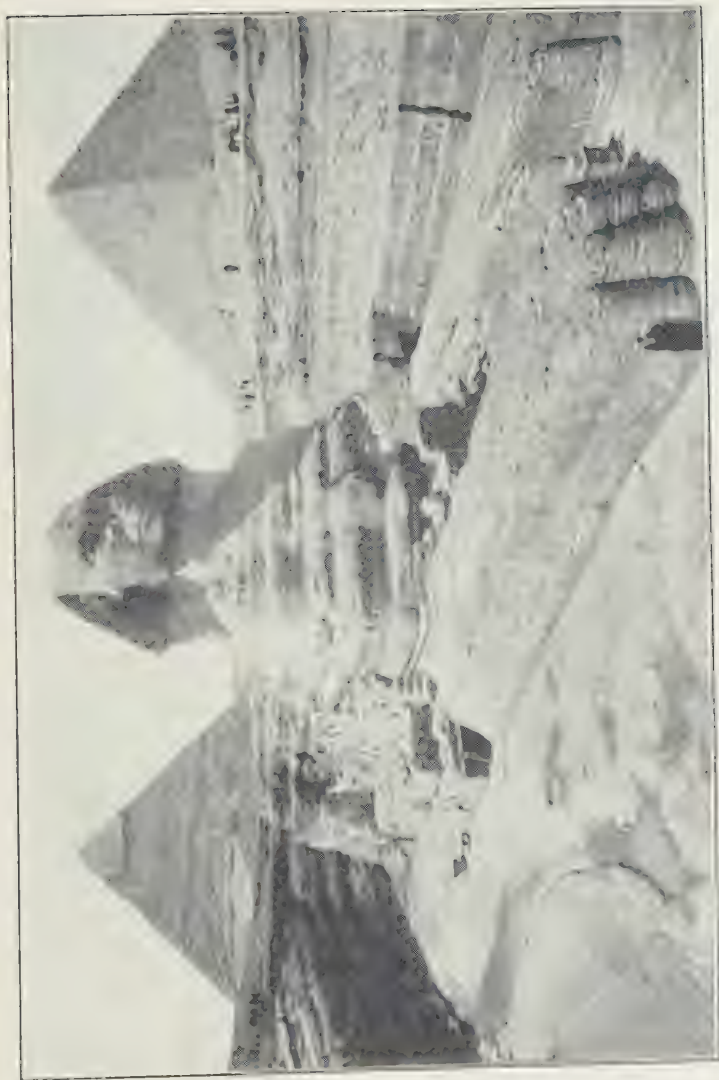
forth. In one scale was placed the figure of Truth, in the other a vase containing all the good actions of the one being judged. If the scales balanced in favor of the dead, his soul was allowed to enter the "boat of the sun," and the spirits led him to Elysium (ê-lîzh'î-ŭm)—the happy, peaceful home of Osiris. If, however, the scales did not balance in favor of the dead Egyptian, he was sentenced to be changed into the body of an animal, the kind depending upon his sins.

Transmigration of Souls. Sometimes, if his sins were many, he had to take the form of different animals, one after the other, and live their lives on earth. This we call the "transmigration of souls." If after all these trials the soul was not purified, Osiris destroyed it with the aid of one of his helpers. The good soul lived with Osiris for three thousand years, and then it was forced to return to its body on earth. This process would continue for several times, and if the soul was then pure it would remain with Osiris forever.

Embalming of the Dead. Further proof of the fact that the Egyptians believed in an after life was their system of embalming the dead. The body, properly prepared, was placed by the priests in an embalming fluid, where it remained for over two months. Then the priests wrapped it in yards and yards of linen bandages, which had been dipped in gums, resins, and other preparations. The dead body was then placed in a tomb, together with articles the person had used on earth that were thought to be of use to him in Elysium. These mummies are still found, in as good condition as the day they were buried. There were various methods of embalming, the more expensive being reserved for the well-to-do.

Thus we see that the society of old Egypt was made up of kings, nobles, soldiers, sailors, artisans, merchants, scribes, priests, farmers, and slaves, all rubbing elbows in their busy everyday life.

The Calendar. The Egyptians early learned to measure time, and the earliest date in recorded history is 4241 B.C. when the first calendar was made. The Egyptians divided the year into twelve months of thirty days each, and celebrated the five days at the end of the year as feast days. They found out later that their year was still short one day in every four years, but it was not until Julius Cæsar (sē'zâr) revised the



A MODERN VIEW OF THE GREAT SPHINX AND PYRAMIDS

The colossal Sphinx at Gizeh is supposed to be a likeness of the god H ~~Amun~~ ^{Amun}. Between the paws there is a door leading to a small temple within the statue.

calendar that leap year was added. This calendar, again corrected by Pope Gregory XIII in 1582, is the one we use today.

The Sciences. The Egyptians were the first people to study surveying. Each year the Nile would destroy a great many of the landmarks, and this made it necessary to employ mathematical calculations in order to find them again. They studied the stars and the sun, and understood that the earth and other planets revolved around the sun.

The Pyramids. The great pyramids of Egypt were started about four hundred years after the reign of Menes. The most remarkable of these is the great pyramid at Gizeh (gě'zě), near Memphis. It covers thirteen acres, and there are over 2,000,000 blocks of stone averaging two and one half tons apiece. It took twenty years to build it, and 100,000 men worked on this vast structure. The body of the King who erected this pyramid lies buried in a tomb enclosed within it. Other pyramids cluster around this one, each containing the tomb of its builder, a ruler of ancient Egypt.

The Great Sphinx. In the same region as the pyramids stands the great Sphinx. This represents the head of a king with the body of a lion. Only the head and shoulders rose above the sands until modern excavations uncovered the mammoth lion's paws.

The Twin Colossi. Other works of art, constructed much later, in the time of the Empire, are the great monuments and obelisks. Two statues, over sixty feet in height, each built out of a solid block of sandstone, have been standing near Thebes for the last three thousand years, silent witnesses to the remarkable climate that has so long preserved them. The more eastern of these two statues was called by the Romans the "Vocal Memnon" (měm'nōn). For nearly two centuries it gave out a musical sound in the early morning. Eye and ear witnesses have testified to this fact. At present, however, for reasons unknown unless it be atmospheric conditions, the sound can no longer be heard.

The Hall of Karnak. The great temple of Karnak, erected to Ammon, the god of Thebes, also dates from the time of the Empire. It is said that a hundred men could stand on the capital of one of the columns. These columns were painted in bright colors and elaborately carved.



From a model at the Metropolitan Museum

TEMPLE OF KARNAK

Reproduction of a portion of the Temple of Karnak. The entire structure was 1200 feet long and 350 feet wide and contained the largest colonnaded hall ever built.

Political Summary. The old kingdom established by Menes lasted until 2100 B.C. During all of this time the seat of government was at Memphis. There were eleven great families, or dynasties, that ruled during this period. In 2100 B.C. the capital was moved to Thebes. Later, for two hundred years, there was confusion and civil war in the land, until a foreign people triumphed. The new rulers were known as Hyksos (hík'sōs), or Shepherd Kings.

In 1600 B.C. these foreigners were driven out and a new dynasty appeared. Egypt then became an Empire. It conquered the people of Syria and Mesopotamia to the north, and the peoples of Africa down to the fourth cataract. It forced the inhabitants of those countries to pay tribute. Thereafter, the story of Egypt was one of intermittent rise and fall, until it was conquered first by Assyria and later by Persia.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Discuss at least three problems that faced the Early Egyptians.
2. Where has our country started irrigation? Why?
3. What peoples coveted the Nile Valley and why? What similar facts were there in the history of our own country?

4. How did the Nile influence the government of Early Egypt?
5. What is meant by a king's power being absolute? What name do we give such a government?
6. Describe the everyday life of the different classes in early Egypt, and compare it with present conditions in America. Reference: Davis, *Readings in Ancient History (Greece)*: p. 9, Residence of a Great Egyptian Nobleman; p. 14, Life of the Poor in Old Egypt.
7. What connects the Red Sea with the Mediterranean Sea today? Was it there in the days of the Pharaohs?
8. How would the religion of the Egyptians be likely to influence them for better living?
9. Why did the old Kings build monuments, obelisks, and pyramids?
10. Search for reference material and give an account of the finding of King "Tut's" tomb.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. *Ancient Times*, by James Henry Breasted, contains very interesting chapters on the economic and social life of the early Egyptians. Report on those conditions and compare them with a twentieth century American community. This report might take the form of a cartoon.

II. In Davis' *Readings in Ancient History* there is a description of an Egyptian Bazaar. Compare this scene with life in our large cities.

III. From Hazen's *Modern Europe*, p. 537, report on the Suez Canal; this report should show (1) the influence of the Canal on the commerce of the East, and (2) how it was acquired by Great Britain and its importance to that country.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

BREASTED	<i>Ancient Times</i>	Ginn
ARNOLD	<i>Story of Ancient Peoples</i>	American Book
WELLS	<i>Outline of History</i>	Macmillan
HODGDON	<i>The Enchanted Past</i>	Ginn
WELLS	<i>How the Present Came from the Past,</i> Part II	Macmillan

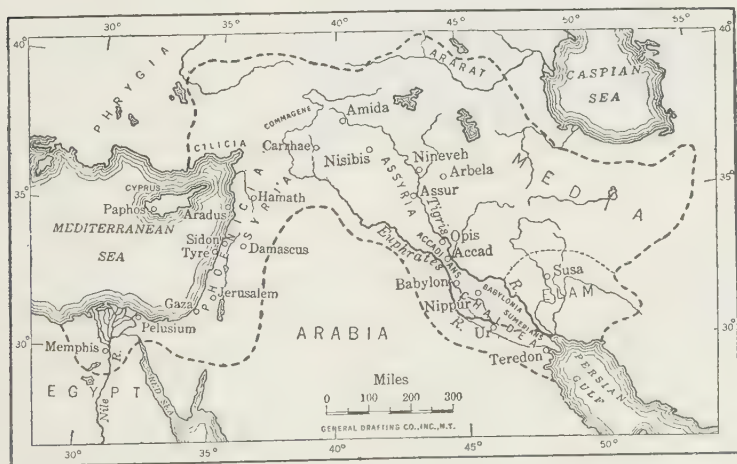
HISTORICAL NOVELS

EBERS	<i>Uarda</i> (Story of Egypt, Fourteenth Century B.C.)	Appleton
EBERS	<i>Egyptian Princess</i> (Egypt during the Fifth Century B.C.)	Hurst

CHAPTER IV

THE FERTILE CRESCENT

The Tigris-Euphrates Valley. The Tigris and Euphrates rivers rise among the Armenian (är-mē'nī-än) mountains in Asia Minor. They flow in a southeasterly direction through the northern part of the Fertile Crescent, and then across the plains until they reach the head of the Persian (pûr'shän) Gulf. The rich soil brought down by these two rivers forms a fertile stretch of territory about forty miles wide and one hundred fifty miles long. In this rich mud deposit grains and fruits grow in abundance. It is in this country, between these two rivers, that the Garden of Eden is supposed to have been located.



THE TIGRIS-EUPHRATES VALLEY

Showing also the location of other early peoples in Phœnicia and at the mouth of the Nile.

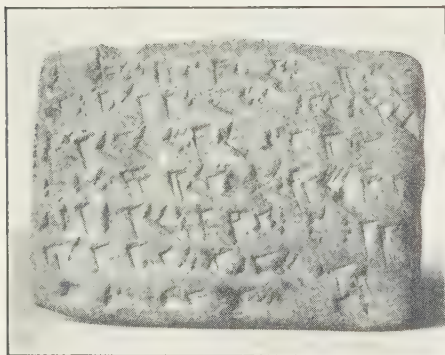
This land, Mesopotamia, became the prize for which the mountain tribes of the North and the desert tribes of the South fought incessantly. Only the strongest peoples could

take and hold this region. No wonder then that great nations arose, one after the other, in this land.

The Sumerians. The Sumerians (sû-mě'ri-āns), to the best of our knowledge, were the first people to occupy this fertile territory. They are supposed to have been a non-Semitic mountain tribe from the north. They soon learned to build dikes and dig canals, and to control and distribute the water as occasion demanded. They built their homes from sun-dried mud bricks. Wheat, barley, and other agricultural products were raised; while their domestic animals

included the ox and the donkey.

Cuneiform Writing. The Sumerians at first represented their ideas by the use of pictures. These pictures were gradually changed into wedge-shaped marks, each standing for a syllable, not for a sound as was the case with the Egyptian hieroglyphics. These wedge-shaped or cu-



From the Metropolitan Museum

CUNEIFORM TABLET

neiform (ku-ne'i-form) inscriptions, often telling the stories of their heroes in war, were cut into marble walls, bronze tablets, and clay slabs and cylinders.

Religion. The Sumerians worshiped many gods. There were gods of the air, of the sky, and of the sun, in whose honor towers of sun-baked brick were erected. Winding outer passageways led from the broad bases of these towers to their narrow tops, where homes were provided for the gods. Temples were built beside the towers, where the people came to worship, offering animals and grains to the gods. The temples were cared for by priests. The two most famous towers were those at Nippur (nĭp-pōor') and at Babylon (bāb'i-lōn). The latter is the one the Hebrews called the "Tower of Babel" (bā'bēl). The custom of building the

towers arose, it is thought, from the earlier worship of these tribes on the mountain tops.

Government. The city states in Mesopotamia were formed for the same reason as those in the Nile Valley. The King's power was absolute. He was also the high priest of the temples. He protected his subjects from foreign foes and supervised the irrigation of the lands. Many of his wars, however, were wars of aggression, in which the majority of his subjects had no interest.

Other City States. The tablets found in recent excavations show us pictures and give us the story of the armies of one city state going out to fight another. Among those other city kingdoms were those of the Semites who had come in from their desert wanderings and settled at Uruk, Kish, Agade, and Ur (ûr). The last named, according to the Book of Genesis, was the original home of Abraham, the traditional founder of the Jewish people. Thus these mountain men and desert men were fighting each other for the control of Mesopotamia as early as 3000 B.C. The Arabian nomads, with their loose files of men who used the bow and arrow, were no match for the Sumerians, with their closed formation and their long spears. And the Sumerians remained supreme on the Plain of Shinar (another name for this part of Mesopotamia) until 2750 B.C.

Sargon of the Akkadians, 2750 B.C. Then Sargon (sär'gön), a mighty chief of the Akkadians (ă-kă'dī-ăns), a Semitic tribe from the desert, succeeded in conquering the Sumerians. The Akkadians, as is so often the case with conquerors, settled down and absorbed the culture of the people whom they had conquered. They copied their art, literature, science, and methods of warfare, and improved on all of them. After a time the city states of Ur, Kish, and Agade united with the Sumerians and overthrew the Akkadians.

Canaanites and Phœnicians. In the meantime other desert wanderers were coming in from the south and settling along the western end of the Fertile Crescent, bordering on the Mediterranean Sea. Parts of this land were settled by the Canaanites (kă'năn-îtz) in the south and by the Phœnicians in the north.

Babylonia. About 2100 B.C. the Plain of Shinar was conquered by the Am'orites under Hammurabi (hâm-ōō-ra'bè). Babylon became the capital, and the new Kingdom thus formed was called Babylonia.

Its Government. The Babylonian system of government was much like the others described in this Epoch. Hammurabi was a benevolent despot. The people had no say in their government. The King considered himself a father to his people. We call this idea paternalism. One of the old inscriptions of this period reads:

Hammurabi indeed is a ruler who is like a real father to his people. He has established prosperity for the people, for all time, and given a pure government to the land.

Hammurabi believed that he had been ordained by the gods to rule over Babylonia. This Divine Right of Kings theory is expressed in another inscription:

When the Gods Anu and Bel gave me the land of Babylon to rule I dug out the Hammurabi canal, which bringeth abundance of water.

This theory, while it might seem strange to us now, was held by many of the rulers in the world's history for nearly four thousand years longer.

Code of Hammurabi. The laws by which the people were governed at this time have also been found. On a large piece of stone, nearly eight feet high, we have what is called the Code of Hammurabi. Here we find that the confines of a man's home were sacred, for the law reads:

If a man make a breach in a house they shall put him to death in front of that breach, and they shall thrust him therein.

Under the Code of Hammurabi we gain some idea of the laws of commerce, how the poor were judged, the position of women in society, and the treatment of slaves. The code was not, strictly speaking, "an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth," as is so often stated. Only the poor man was punished in this fashion, and then only when the offense was against one who belonged to the upper classes. Women were

highly respected by the early Babylonians, and they influenced the history of their country as much as did the Egyptian women theirs.

Life of the Peasants. The King and the nobles owned much of the land, which they rented out to the peasants in small tracts. One half of the produce often went for rent, and the Code of Hammurabi made the peasant farmer stand the loss of crops by storms or other catastrophes.

Manufactures. Manufactures played an important part in the life of the people. We know that one of the leading industries was the making of brick, because most of the buildings were built of brick. Beautiful rugs and fine cloths were also manufactured. The Babylonians became expert in the making of musical instruments, and of metal tools and weapons. Their leather goods were of a fine quality and workmanship. These artisans usually hired out to merchants, getting so much a year for their labor. In this way capitalism and contract labor received a fairly early start.

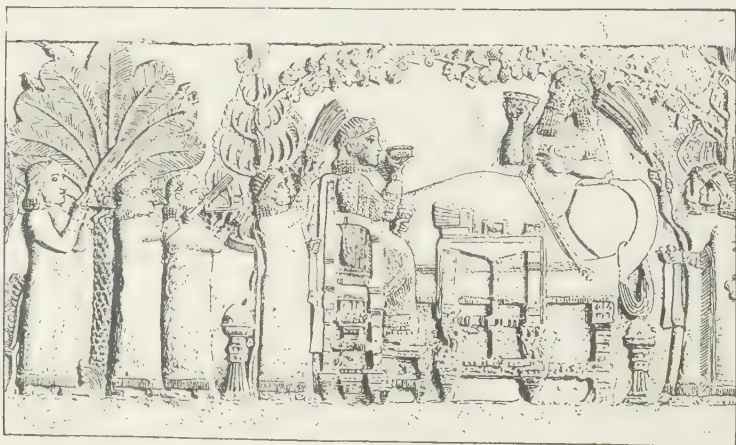
Commerce. Many of the agricultural and manufactured products of Babylonia were exported to Egypt, India, Persia, and Syria. These countries, in turn, sent many of their goods into Babylon. Ships plied up and down the Tigris and Euphrates, while caravans brought goods from distant lands across the deserts. It was because of this extensive commercial intercourse that the cuneiform numerals and writings spread from Babylon to the other countries.

The Tariff. The Old Babylonian cities were protected by walls, with narrow gateways leading into the city, guarded by soldiers. Before a merchant from another place could enter the city with his goods he was forced to pay a tax. This tax went to the King for the upkeep of the government, and in principle was the same as our modern tariff for revenue.

Religion. The religion of the Babylonians was based on that of the Sumerians. Marduk (mär'dook) was their leading god, the one above all others. Their literature is filled with stories of gods and mythical heroes. Only two of their national heroes, however, attained eternal life. These two, a man and his wife, were saved from a great flood that swept over the world. This story is found in the epic of Gil'gamesh,

their greatest national hero. The masses of poorer people were not supposed to be highly regarded by the gods, and of course this made them even more servile.

Why Babylonia Fell. Babylonia, like all despotic countries, had several reasons for her final downfall. One of these was the condition of her people. In a land where the masses are enslaved, downtrodden, and embittered patriotism cannot be fostered. Great commercial enterprises, vast armies, and a fine system of public schools could not save her. The policy of subjecting other peoples and exploiting their lands, instead of fostering a cooperative feeling, made her many enemies. These discordant forces from within and from without undermined the influence of Babylonia. After the death of Hammurabi the country gradually declined, and a thousand years later it was conquered by one of its old subject territories, Assyria.



From the Metropolitan Museum

AN ASSYRIAN KING AND QUEEN BANQUETING

From a sarcophagus decoration showing also the servants in attendance.

The Hebrews. The early history of the Hebrews is somewhat lost in tradition. The story runs as follows. Shortly after the death of Hammurabi, a tribe of shepherds left either Ur or Haran (authorities differ) under their leader, Abra-

ham. They were becoming dissatisfied with the old Sumerian worship of many gods, and sought a place to worship their one god, Jeho'vah. As they sought new pasture land for their flocks they were driven from one place to another by hostile peoples. They at length reached the border-land of the Canaanites, but these people were suffering from a famine. So the Hebrews traveled south and at last were given refuge in Egypt, that land of plenty. They remained there several years, and then returned to Canaan.

The Hebrews in Egypt. Under the Hyksos Kings of Egypt the descendants of this Hebrew tribe, who had again entered Egypt, enjoyed many privileges and were happy and content. The overthrow of the Hyksos, however, proved disastrous to the Hebrew people. Because of their foreign blood and the alarm occasioned by their great numbers the new dynasty enslaved the Hebrews, and for many years they were forced to work on the canals and to help construct pyramids and other public buildings. Cruel slave drivers ac-



From the motion picture, "The Ten Commandments"

THE EXODUS

Moses leading the Hebrews out of Egypt.

accompanied them to their work, and stood over them during the day.

Moses. At last a leader arose among the Jews—Mo'ses—who led them across the Red Sea into safety. For a long time they wandered in the wilderness; and the Bible tells us that during this period Moses received the Ten Commandments from Mount Sinai. These were the laws of Jehovah for the Jews. Before they entered the "promised land" of Canaan, Moses died.

The Hebrews Occupy Canaan. Other leaders followed Moses, and eventually the twelve tribes occupied the land held by the Canaanites. The latter had lived in Canaan for over a thousand years. They had built up a government, had started industries, and had developed large commercial interests. The Hebrews adopted this civilization; and they probably intermarried with the Hittites (hīt'itz), a nation just north of the Mediterranean in Asia Minor, who had wandered down into Syria. It took quite a while for the leaders of the Jewish people to unite all their tribes. At first they were a loosely knit confederation, and judges played a large part in their government.

The Philistines. The greatest foes of the Hebrews at this time were the Phi'listines, a people who had fled from Crete, one of the islands of the Ægean (e-jě'ăn) Sea. They were forced to leave their old home because of the vast hordes of Indo-Europeans who were pushing across from Europe driving everybody before them. The Philistines were finally conquered by the Jews under Saul, a young man belonging to the tribe of Benjamin.

Hebrew Kings. The Hebrew people now became ambitious and desired a King to rule them, as the other nations had. So Saul was chosen their first King, about 1025 B.C. David succeeded Saul and established his capital at the old Canaanite city of Jerusalem. Solomon followed David and used the wealth of the nation in building beautiful and costly temples. He kept a gay and expensive court, which was paid for by heavy taxes placed on the people.

Division of the Kingdom. After Solomon's death the kingdom divided. The ten tribes in the north formed themselves into the Kingdom of Is'rael, while the two tribes in

the south formed the Kingdom of Jude'a, with Jerusalem as the capital. Israel remained a commercial and industrial country, while Judea was more of a pastoral and mountainous community. During these times many religious controversies arose. The northern kingdom fell into the habit of worshipping Baal or Moloch (mō'lōk), the god of the Phœnicians. Prophets arose to warn the Israelites concerning their moral, religious, and political shortcomings.



PLOWING

The agriculture of biblical times was crude and inefficient according to modern standards.

Fall of the Two Kingdoms. Israel was conquered by the Assyrian army in 727 B.C. and many of its inhabitants were carried into slavery. An attempt of the Assyrians to capture Judea at this time failed because of a disease that spread among the Assyrian soldiers, making it impossible for them to continue their conquest. However, a little over one hundred years later Nebuchadnezzar (něb'-ū-kād-něz'ār), King of the Chaldeans (kāl-dē'āns), captured Judea and took many of the leaders back to Babylon as slaves. About ten years later the remaining people of Judea rebelled against the Chal-

dean governors and soldiers. This rebellion was finally put down and Jerusalem was destroyed. Many of its people fled to Egypt, but many others were taken back to Babylon to join their comrades as slaves. This was what is known as the "Babylonian Captivity." Here they remained until freed by Cyrus the Great, a Persian ruler and conqueror.

What the Hebrews Gave to Civilization. The history of the Jews up to this time had been one of commerce, industry, and wars, much like all the other countries. But in one respect it differed. They had succeeded in sowing the seeds of a religion which acknowledged one God, to be worshiped by all and who cared for all. The old kingdom had now been destroyed and its inhabitants scattered among the other nations, even as they are today. But their religion was to live and influence mankind right down to the present time.

The Phœnicians. Just north of the Kingdom of Israel, along the Mediterranean Sea, was the home of another Semitic people. This land, one hundred and fifty miles long and about forty miles wide, lying between the Lebanon (Lêb'â-nôn) mountains and the sea was inhabited by the Phœnicians. Important commercial cities were built along the coast, the most important of which were Tyre and Sidon. At first these cities united into city leagues; but after the decline of the Egyptians, the Hittites, and the Babylonians, a kingdom was formed.

Commerce. The Phœnicians became the most daring seamen of all times. They traded with the countries around the Fertile Crescent, and with Egypt. They had discovered the secret of making a purple dye for which there was a large demand in all the Oriental countries. This dye was secured from the morex and the buccinum, two species of shellfish. Only one drop of this precious fluid could be secured from each mollusk, thus making the dye very valuable. Large fleets of fishermen were busy collecting these shellfish, and the fleets kept moving continually in search of new and larger fishing grounds as the old ones gave out. Colonies were established one after another by these merchantmen and fishermen all along the Mediterranean, the most important of which was Carthage in Africa.

Phœnician Trade. These seamen traded with the Britons, bringing back tin and other products. At one time a Phœnician fleet sailed around the continent of Africa. This voyage took them three years. The Phœnician King, Hiram, sent workmen and lumber made from the cedars of Lebanon to help the Jewish King, David, build his palace at Jerusalem. The Phœnicians also aided Solomon in the building of his temple.



PHŒNICIAN SHIPS

The ship with the sail is the type used by the Phœnicians in their longer voyages, which brought them their prestige in trade.

Religion. The Phœnicians worshiped many gods, but the most important was Baal or Moloch. Baal was represented in metal as a human figure with a bull's head. He was the sun god, the god of fire and destruction. Small children and beautiful maidens were offered as human sacrifices to Baal. In a heated furnace built within the body of this huge graven image the victims were burned alive. When for political reasons a Phœnician princess, Jez'ebel, daughter of a former priest of Baal, was married to one of the kings of the northern Kingdom of Israel she brought along her religion and four hundred priests, and set up a temple. No

wonder the old Jewish prophets cried out against this cruel practice of human sacrifice.

Phœnician Influence. Phœnicia became the subject first of one country and then of another; but it was through the Phœnicians that Oriental civilization was carried from the Hittites and the island of Crete over into Europe.

Assyria. The Assyrians were still another Semitic tribe, that settled along the Tigris River to the north of Babylon about 3000 B.C. They named their settlement Asshur, which was also the name of their tribal god. They were a fearless and warlike people and most of their history is one of cruel conquest. In their infancy, however, they were conquered by the stronger Kingdom of Babylonia to the south. They learned much from their conquerors. The language, art, religion, and customs of the Babylonians soon became a part of their civilization.

Vassal to Other Nations. The kingdom to the south was not, however, their only enemy. For a long time they were subject to the strong Hittite nation to the north. Thus Assyria was for many centuries only a vassal to the rising and falling fortunes of other nations. War became their profession from necessity, and under strong kings they were able not only to hold their own but to conquer others as well. In this way they laid the foundation for a large Assyrian Empire.

Methods of War. The strong mountain tribes to the north were conquered and added to the new kingdom. Under Tig'lath Pileser (pī-lē'zor) I, the Hittites were defeated and brought under Assyrian control. An inscription describing this affair reads:

With their corpses I strewed the mountain passes and heights. I took away their property, and countless booty. Six thousand warriors, the remnants of their army, who had fled before my arms, embraced my feet. I carried them away and counted them among the inhabitants of my own land.

This gives us some idea of the cruelty practiced by those old Assyrian kings—a cruelty common to Oriental peoples. New methods of war had been introduced. The horse and chariot

now appeared upon the scene, and during the Assyrian supremacy civilization was checked.

Assyrian Conquests and Empire, 700 B.C. The Assyrians could not hope to become a world power unless they gained control of the sea. So one after another of the leading powers of that day were conquered. The Phœnicians, the Israelites, and the people of Damas'cus (the capital city of Syria), as well as Babylonia and Egypt, had fallen before the Assyrian onslaught. Thus was formed the Assyrian Empire, the most extensive the world had known up to this time.

Provincial System of Government. The question that now faced Assyria was how to control this vast territory. Previous to this, both Egypt and Babylonia had left the conquered provinces pretty much to themselves, allowing the local rulers to remain as long as their tribute money was paid. This made it easy for outlying countries to revolt, and they were a constant menace to the central government. The Assyrians, however, sought to overcome this trouble. The rulers and all the leading citizens of her subject nations were transported, and over the remaining people Assyrian soldiers and governors were placed. This was the beginning of that provincial system of Empire ruling that we shall hear so much about from now on.

Why Assyria Fell. Assyria became a vast military power. Her soldiers, equipped with iron weapons, battering rams, and fleet horses, held the other countries in subjection. It took a great number of men and a vast amount of money to keep up this extensive military system. The agricultural and industrial life suffered and declined. Her vast empire was filled with dissatisfied and restless people. Initiative and progress were stifled. One after another her people revolted. Outside foes were also becoming dangerous. The Medes and the Persians, tribes of Indo-Europeans, were pushing down from the north. The Chaldeans, another Semitic people, had already taken Babylon. Finally, Nineveh (nĭn'e-vě) the capital of Assyria, fell before the Medes about 600 B.C.

The Chaldean Empire. The Chaldeans chose the old Babylonian capital, Babylon, for their chief city, and became the predominating people under the reign of Nebuchadnezzar. The short period in which the Chaldean Empire held sway

is mostly the history of the forty year reign of this King. Egypt was a source of great trouble to the new King. The western countries were in revolt, influenced by the Egyptians. Costly wars ensued, and it was during these revolutions that the little Kingdom of Judea was conquered and its people carried into Babylonia as slaves.



From the painting by Doré

THE HANGING GARDENS

One of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World.

Nebuchadnezzar. Nebuchadnezzar spent vast sums of money in building the city of Babylon. Larger and more extensive temples and government buildings rivaled those of the old Assyrian Empire. The city was fortified by massive walls, thought to be impregnable to attack. The King and

his court lived in great splendor. To please his Queen, who was a native of the mountainous country of the Medes, Nebuchadnezzar built the famous "Hanging Gardens." These were immense mounds of earth rising one above the other in four terraces. These mounds were supported by large pillars. Upon each platform thus erected plants, trees, and shrubs were planted. Hydraulic machinery brought water up from the Euphrates to keep these gardens fresh and growing.

The Persians. This life of ease, pleasure, conquest, and tyranny was not to last long. A new power, stronger than any that had gone before, was rising in the Ira'nian plateau east of the Cas'pian Sea. These Iranian people, the Persians, were a branch of that great family of nations, the Indo-Europeans. One branch of this family had separated and gone into southern Europe, while another had migrated into India.

Religion—Zoroaster. The Iranians in their religious belief were followers of that great teacher Zoroaster (zō'rō-ās'tēr). He taught that life was a continual struggle between the good influences on the one side and the bad on the other. The author and helper of good was a divinity known as Maz'da, while he who influenced people for evil was known as Ahriman (ä'rī-mān). Zoroaster also taught a judgment after life. The Persians were strong believers in the teachings of Zoroaster.

Cyrus. About 550 B.C. Cyrus succeeded in uniting the Persian tribes and became their King. At the fall of Nineveh these Persians were subject peoples of the Medes, an Iranian people. Soon after this, Cyrus conquered the Medes and became master of Upper Mesopotamia. One after another the countries around the Mediterranean fell before this new conqueror. In 539 B.C. Belshazzar (běl-shāz'ār) and the Chaldean army were defeated and Cyrus entered Babylon, master of the Tigris-Euphrates Valley. He was killed in battle with some nomadic tribesmen, and was succeeded by his son Cambyses. Under this ruler Egypt was conquered in 525 B.C. Thus the Persians had become masters of all the countries that make up our early civilization. They will play a greater part, however, in the next Epoch, where we find them over in Europe.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. What were the economic advantages of the Tigris-Euphrates Valley?
2. Why do we know so much more about Egypt and its people than we do concerning the people of Mesopotamia?
3. What was the advantage of the "City Kingdoms" of Sumer over any previous government?
4. What advantages or disadvantages were there in a paternal system of government such as that of Babylonia? Compare Hammurabi's ideas of government as given in this chapter with the preamble of our Constitution and discuss the fundamental differences found in these documents.
5. Explain how the oppression of the masses weakens a government.
6. What does civilization owe to (1) the Sumerians, (2) the Babylonians, (3) the Hebrews, (4) the Phœnicians? References: Van Loon, *Story of Mankind*, chapters dealing with the Sumerians and the Phœnicians; (2) Guerber, *Story of Our Civilization*, Chapter XII, The Israelites, Chapter IX, The Graveyard of Empires and Nations. This question might also be answered by means of a chart or a cartoon.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. From Wells' *Outline of History*, Chapter XIV, choose from the following topics for classroom reports:

1. Early Cities and Early Nomads
2. The Sumerians
3. The Empire of Sargon I
4. The Empire of Hammurabi
5. The Assyrians and Their Empire
6. The Chaldean Empire

II. A committee may report on the social conditions of the people during this Epoch of Early Civilization and contrast those times with the present in our own country.

1. Wells, *Outline of History*, Chapter XVIII
 - a. The Common Man in Ancient Times
 - b. The Earliest Slaves
 - c. The First "Independent" Persons
 - d. Social Classes Three Thousand Years Ago
2. Breasted, *Ancient Times*

III. Reports on the following subjects from Davis' *Readings in Ancient History* (Greece) will not only prove interesting but throw more light on the peoples of the Fertile Crescent:

1. The Code of Hammurabi
2. The Customs of the Persians
3. The Babylonian Story of the Flood

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

ARNOLD	<i>Stories of Ancient Peoples</i>	American Book
	<i>Story of the Nations</i> (Assyria, Phœnicia, Ancient Egypt, the Jews)	Putnam
BREASTED	<i>Ancient Times</i>	Ginn

HISTORICAL NOVELS

DAVIS	<i>Belshazzar</i> (A Tale of the Fall of Baby- lon)	Doubleday
McMAHON and McPHERSON	<i>The Ten Commandments</i>	Grosset

EPOCH TWO

GRECO-ROMAN CIVILIZATION

Epoch One traced the rise of civilization from primitive times down to the supremacy of Persia, about 500 B.C. It began with the helplessness, the hardships, the struggles, and the inventions of early man. It told how he learned to till the soil, cultivate crops, domesticate animals, form cities, and evolve governments. It told of the progress and achievements of those people who lived along the Nile River in Africa and within the Fertile Crescent in Asia; how they invented a written language, irrigated their lands, built canals, and erected magnificent buildings; how they became skilled metal and cabinet workers, glass makers, weavers, potters, musicians, ship-builders, and sailors; how they made the first beginnings in geometry, physics, and astronomy. It told too of ceaseless warfare and the rise and fall of nations, until Persia became master of all those countries included in this early civilization.

Epoch Two will show how that civilization made its way across the Ægean and Mediterranean Seas, and how it was absorbed and improved upon in many ways, first by Greece and then by Rome.

CHAPTER V

GREECE—ITS EARLY DEVELOPMENT

Cræsus Overthrown.—Before Cræsus (krē'sŭs), that wealthy King of Lydia, gave battle to Cyrus, the Persian, he sent his ambassadors to the European continent to consult the soothsayers at Delphi (the Delphic Oracle) in Greece. He wished to know beforehand what the outcome of the conflict would be. From the Delphic Oracle came this ambiguous reply: "Cræsus, when he crosses the Halys, will overthrow a great Empire." Cræsus mistook the meaning of the oracle, crossed the Halys River in Asia Minor, met the Persians, and was forced to retreat to his capital at Sardis. A little while after this, Cyrus captured both the city and the King. A great empire had been overthrown, but it was not the Persian.

Early Greek Influence. When the news reached Sparta, a city state in Greece and an ally of Cræsus, she was preparing to come to his aid. Thus we see that even prior to the predominance of Persia in world affairs Greece had assumed a somewhat important place in the thoughts and actions of these earlier nations. Like a runner in a relay race she stood ready and waiting, on the edge of Europe, to receive the baton from the past ages, contribute her part, and then pass it on to Rome.

The Early Greeks. Hundreds of years before this the ancestors of these Greeks had wandered down from north-eastern Europe in search of pasture lands for their flocks. They were a branch of that Indo-European family of whom we have already learned. These nomadic tribes followed one after the other until the Greek peninsula was pretty well populated with them. The four great tribes were the Achæans (ă-kē'ănz), the Dorians (dō'rĭ-ănz), the Eolians, and the Io'nians. All these tribes had very much the same language.

religion, and culture. Their legends attribute their origin to Hellen. He was supposed to be the founder of their race and they are often spoken of as Hellenes (hĕl'ĕnz).

When the foremost of these tribes reached the shores of the Ægean Sea they found the country well adapted to the growth of grains. Grapes and olives were abundant and soon the vineyard became a familiar sight around the early Hellenic homes.

The Ægeans. In addition to this, these early settlers came in contact with a people whose civilization was as well developed and almost as old as that of Egypt. These were the Ægean people, who were almost unknown to us until very recently. The Ægean cities and kingdoms were the connecting link between the Oriental and the Greek civilizations. These people inhabited the islands of the Ægean Sea, as well as the Asiatic and European borderlands of this sea.

Heinrich Schliemann. We owe a great deal of our knowledge of the Ægean world to Heinrich Schliemann (shlĕ'män), a German traveler and archæologist (är'ke-öl'ô-jĭst). Having an independent fortune, Schliemann in 1870 started excavations on the mounds of Bissarlik in Asia Minor. Here, he believed, lay the site of Ancient Troy, the city that played such an important part in the Trojan War described in part in Homer's poem, the *Iliad*. Schliemann found the remains of a city much older than Troy. Later, however, archæologists found on the same site, but above the city Schliemann had discovered, the Troy of which Homer wrote. This city, which for so long a time had been considered merely a myth, was now a fact.

Mycenæ and Tiryns. On the mainland of Greece, in the country of Argos, Schliemann found the remains of the ancient cities of Mycenæ (mĭ-sĕ'nĕ) and Tiryns (tĭ'rĭns). The excavations here show that the early inhabitants of Greece had built castles and fine roads, and had surrounded their cities with massive walls. Other remains show that they possessed art, literature, religion, and government on a par with any of the countries we have already studied.

Crete. The predominating influence over this Ægean world seems to have come from the island of Crete, in the Mediterranean Sea. As early as 3000 B.C. the Cretans were

trading with the Egyptians. A thousand years later they became a great manufacturing and seafaring people. The most important city at this time was Cnossus (nōs'sōs), in the northeastern part of the island, which had been built upon the ruins of an even older city. The excavations of the early twentieth century, under English archæologists, throw a great deal of light on the life of these times.



THRONE-ROOM, PALACE OF CNOSSUS

The throne is said to be the one from which ruled Minos, the greatest Cretan King. It was he who figured in the Greek legend of Theseus and the Minotaur.

Palace of the Kings. The massive stone palace of the Kings, with its winding stairways, huge colonnades, and beautifully painted walls, tells us better than any writing could that powerful monarchs, great architects, and master painters lived and wrought in these times. The sanitary conditions of the palace also show that they had a fine system of drainage, and had provided bathrooms, something practically unknown in our European cities three hundred years ago.

Life of the Cretans. The Cretans manufactured beautifully painted vases, designed cups and statuettes of gold, and carved ivory ornaments that were in demand in Egypt, Asia Minor, and the inland cities of Ægean Greece. The evidences unearthed by archæologists show that the peasants of Crete lived in little mud-brick houses and cultivated their land. The nobles and court ladies are pictured in all their finery. One form of amusement was bull fighting. The chariots and arms of a one-time standing army have been found, but no wall surrounded the town. The galley ships that carried on a great commerce have been portrayed. All this we know of Crete today, and as soon as scholars have learned to translate the Cretan writing more will be known of this great people.

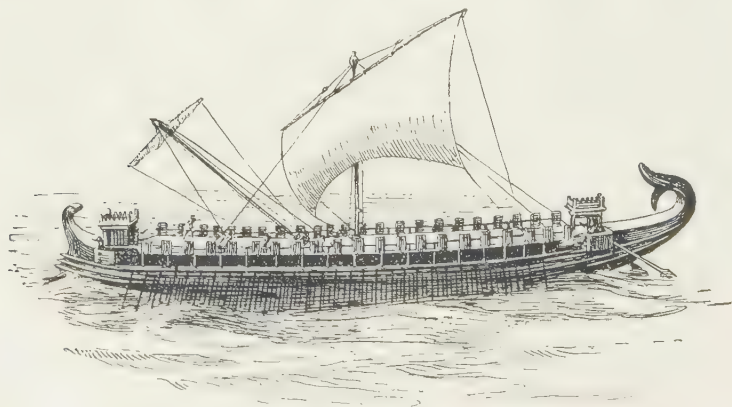
Hellenic Conquests. This, then, was the civilization, nearly 2000 years old, that these new Hellenic tribes from the north confronted. They pushed down into Southern Greece, taking possession of the lands and the cities such as Mycenæ and Tiryns. The Dorians, who seemed to be the most warlike of these Hellenic people, after a while took to ships and, bent upon conquest, reached the island of Crete and captured the city of Cnossus. Many of the Cretans fled, and some of these refugees went over and settled in Palestine, where we met them in Hebrew history as the Philistines. This was about 1400 B.C.

The Greeks a Mixed People. Two hundred years later, Troy as well as many of the islands in the Ægean Sea fell before the barbarian invaders. Most of the Ægean civilization was destroyed and many of its people scattered. Those who remained intermarried with the Hellenes, and the descendants of these mixed people we properly call the Greeks. In this way a great deal of the language, art, and culture of the Ægeans was taken up by this new people.

Physical Characteristics of Greece. Continental Greece is a peninsula composed of valleys, formed by an irregular system of mountain ranges. Deep bays cut into the interior, supplied by the waters of the Mediterranean, Ægean, and Ionian Seas. The southern part was called the Peloponnesus (pěl'ô-pō-nē'sūs), and was almost cut off from the mainland by surrounding waters. Central Greece extended from the

southern point of At'tica to the border of Thes'saly and Epirus (ê-pî'rus). These two, with Macedonia, formed northern Greece.

Early Greek Government. Into this fertile country, as we have seen, came these nomadic tribes headed by their chiefs. They had settled down, built their homes, and intermarried with the Ægeans. And then, like the people of the Nile and of Mesopotamia, they organized city states and were ruled by kings. There was one fundamental difference, however. Whereas the kings of Egypt and the Fertile Crescent, as a rule, claimed that their right to govern came direct from the gods, the Greek kings owed their position and power to the lesser chiefs. They were selected by a council of these smaller rulers, while an assembly of the people approved the laws made by the kings. Thus a more democratic element was introduced into government by the early Greeks.



From the model at the Philadelphia Commercial Museum

GREEK TRIREME

Some idea of the interior of a trireme can be gained from the picture of the galley slaves on page 109.

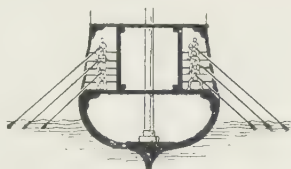
Commerce. The people of the numerous city states scattered over the mainland and on the islands of the Ægean Sea soon learned the art of navigation, and a brisk trade sprang up among them. They became skilled seamen. With their great oared boats, propelled at first by one tier of fifty

rowers and later by three tiers of fifty rowers each (triremes), they were to be seen in all the waters of the known world. Sailing vessels, too, were used, as they had been used in Egypt many years before.

Phœnician Influence. The development of their commerce and sea craft was due chiefly to the Phœnicians. About 1100 B.C. the Phœnicians, being unhampered by any foreign yoke, started to bring Oriental products to the mainland of Greece. They brought iron from the country around the Black Sea, and soon the Greeks were in possession of iron tools and weapons. Beautiful garments, vases, statuettes, and ornaments were brought from the Oriental countries. The Phœnicians traded these for olive oil and other Greek products. Barter was the custom at first. More important than this, however, was the introduction of the Phœnician alphabet. This contained twenty-two signs, and all business transactions were carried on by the Phœnicians with this writing. The Greeks, from necessity, soon mastered the Phœnician signs. They then improved upon them. The Phœnician alphabet contained no vowels, and these were supplied by the Greeks. Phœnician consonants that had no meaning in Greek were taken out, and soon the Greeks were in possession of a written language.

Legends and Myths. But to understand these people—their life, religion, government, and amusements—we must turn to their early literature. The first stories that come down to us concerning the early life of the Greeks are those related in oral traditions. These legends or myths, handed down from father to son, generation after generation, contained some elements of truth. But as they passed from one person to another they were greatly exaggerated. Some knowledge of these myths is necessary if we are to understand the historic times that follow.

Religion. The religion of the Greeks is ascertained in part from their myths. They believed that many gods watched over their destinies, and even associated with earthly



CROSS SECTION OF A TRIREME

The word "trireme" is derived from Latin words meaning "three" and "oar."

men and women. The forces of nature, which they were unable to understand, were attributed to the action of various gods. This personification of nature appears throughout the religion of many of the people in the Indo-European family. And for this reason many of the myths of the Hindus and the Germanic peoples are similar to those of the Greeks.

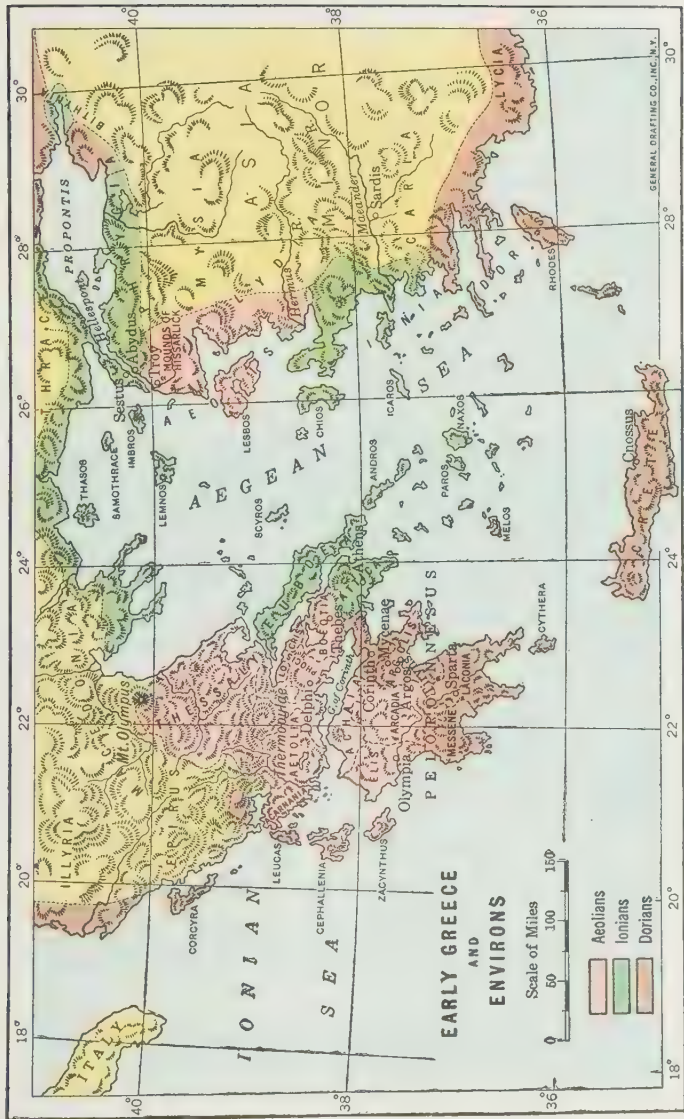
The Gods. Most of the Greek gods were supposed to have lived on Mount Olympus, in northern Thessaly. There was a great war among them on this mountain top, and finally Zeus (zūs) (Jupiter) was victorious. The other gods who had helped him overthrow his enemies chose him to rule over the world. He appointed Poseidon (pō-sī'dōn) (Neptune), his brother, to rule over the seas; and to another brother, Hades (Pluto), he gave charge of the underworld. He himself governed Heaven and Earth.

The Greeks believed that Zeus controlled the winds, rains, and snows from heaven. The seasons depended upon him. The thunder was caused by his throwing thunderbolts through the air. He had the power, it was believed, to prophesy



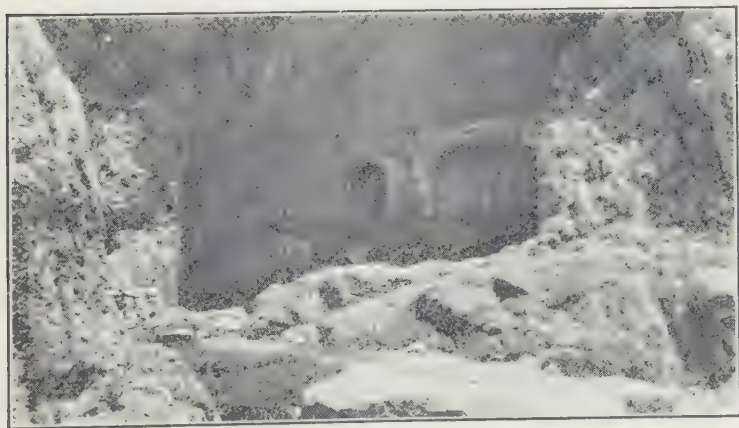
HERA AND ATHENA

According to mythology, these goddesses went to the aid of the Greeks in the Trojan War.



to his earthly subjects. So the Greeks built temples to Zeus, cared for by priests, and here they came and worshiped.

Hera (Juno) was the wife and sister of Zeus. She was the particular friend of women and presided over the marriage rites. She is described as being beautiful, self-willed, and proud. Argos, Sparta, and Mycenæ were believed to be her favored cities. Pallas Athena (Minerva) was supposed to have sprung full grown from the forehead of Zeus, during the war of the gods. She was looked upon as the goddess of wisdom and virtue. Ares (Mars) was the son of Hera and Zeus and was the war god. He was in the midst of all earthly battles, and the Greeks were continually seeking his favor. Apollo was the sun god and he also possessed prophetic power. To him was erected the temple at Delphi, in central Greece.



THE CASTALIAN SPRING

This spring—sacred to the nine Muses, those patronesses of literature, art and science—was also the place of purification before being received by the Oracle of Delphi. The spring is located at the foot of Mt. Parnassus.

The Delphic Oracle. Here was the famous Delphic oracle, renowned throughout the world, the same that was consulted by Cræsus before he was conquered by Cyrus the Great. People who wanted advice as to how to act on some impor-

tant case would come to the oracle at the Temple of Apollo. Here they would put their question to a prophetess, who sat on a tripod over steaming vapor issuing from a crevice in the earth. Half drunk from the fumes, supposedly, she would utter strange words, and these the priests would take down and give the answer to the question. Most of the answers could mean any one of several things.

Other divinities were: Aphrodītē (Venus), the goddess of beauty; Demētēr (Ceres), the goddess of agriculture; Hephæstus (hē-fēs'tūs) (Vulcan), the god of fire; and Her'mēs (Mercury), the fleet-footed messenger of the gods.

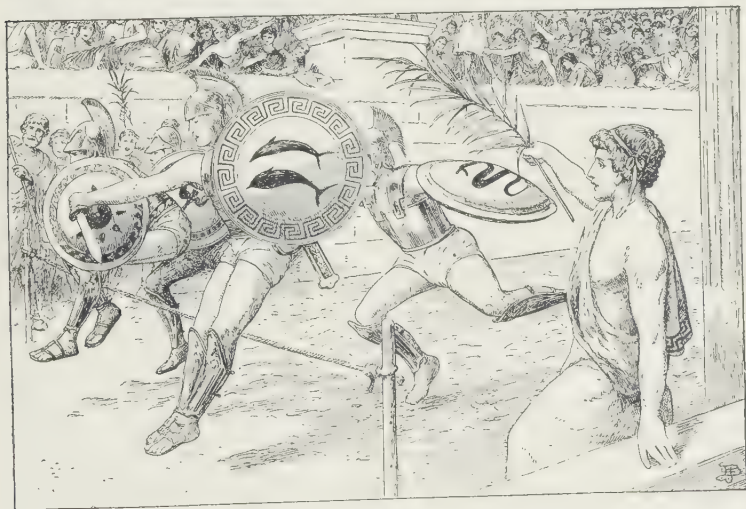
The Greeks believed that after death every one, good and bad alike, descended into Hades. The famous warriors enjoyed a happy life in the Elysian fields.

Epic Poetry. Aside from their religion and the stories of their gods, the Greeks loved to tell of the deeds of their mighty warriors. Gradually these stories were collected and recited by bards, to the accompaniment of the lyre. These singers traveled from place to place and sang at the banquet halls of kings and nobles. The ballads spread into Asia Minor, and there was hardly a village that had not become familiar with them. One of the greatest of the ballad singers, and the best of the epic poets, was the blind minstrel, Homer.

The Iliad. The two greatest epic poems of this time were the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*. Although there is some doubt about their authorship, they have been attributed to Homer. The *Iliad* is the story of the Trojan War. King Menelaus (mēn'ē-lā'ūs) of Sparta had married a beautiful and clever girl. She was the daughter of the god Zeus. Priam was King of Troy, and he had a son Paris. In a quarrel among the goddesses, Hera, Athena, and Aphrodite, as to which of them was the most beautiful, Paris was forced to decide. He chose Aphrodite, and she promised him the most beautiful woman in all the world as his wife—Helen, the wife of Menelaus. Paris visited Menelaus, in Sparta; and while the latter was in Crete on business Helen and Paris eloped and went to Troy. A great many of the Greek chieftains or kings offered to aid Menelaus and his brother Agamem'non in a war against Troy. For the next ten years we are told of the deeds of the great heroes Odysseus (ō-dīs'ūs) (Ulysses), Achilles,

Patroclus, and others. At last, after a long siege, the Trojans were defeated and Helen returned to Sparta with Menelaus, happy and contented.

The Odyssey. The *Odyssey* is the story of the wanderings of Odysseus after the Trojan War. Other hero stories abound, outside of the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*. One is the story of the great and powerful Hercules, the son of an earthly woman and Zeus. He freed Prometheus (prō-mē'thūs), a god who had been bound and chained to a mountain top by Zeus for stealing fire for mankind. This last story is valuable only because it gives us an idea of the belief of the people.



GREEK GAMES

The finish of a race between hoplites, heavy-armed infantry soldiers.

The Olympic Games. In the western part of the Peloponnesus, in the country of Elis, was Olympia. Every four years the Greeks from all the city states assembled here for the great festival held in honor of Jupiter. To this festival all the states sent their best athletes to participate in the competitive games. Wrestling, running, jumping, boxing, and throwing the discus were a few of the sports. The athletes trained for a long time, and one of the greatest honors that

could come to a Greek was to win some of these sports. The only reward was a crown of wild olive branches and the glory he achieved for his city. There were contests not only for athletes, but for artisans, singers, and other people efficient in their particular callings.

The first Olympic games recorded in history were held in 776 B.C. By 700 B.C. the Greek alphabet and writing were being used by a great many of the people, and the historic period of Greece had begun.

Forces Making for Separation. We have seen how the different tribes united into city states or small democratic kingdoms. Unlike Egypt and the countries of Asia Minor, however, the Greek city states never united to form one great empire. There were several reasons for this. One was that the different communities on the mainland were separated by high mountains and deep bays, while the communities on the surrounding islands were still further apart. Another reason for disunion was jealousy. Each state had its own local traditions and history and wanted to stand first; and as no one state became powerful enough to subdue all the rest, they never were united.

Forces Operating for Unity. On the other hand, in times of common danger there were several influences that made for union. One was that they all spoke a common language, although many dialects prevailed. Moreover, they had a common religion. The Olympic games brought the different states together, and here was a common interest. The Delphic oracle, too, was another place where all Greeks stood on equal footing.

City States. The most important city states that arose in Greece were Argos, Corinth, Thebes (thēbz), Sparta, and Athens; but it is the last two that play the more important part in Greek history.

Sparta. The Spartans gradually conquered most of the towns in the Peloponnesus, or southern Greece, and formed the Spartan League. The old democratic kingdom was replaced by a new form of government, a military oligarchy. This means a government by a few military chieftains or lords. The people of the conquered towns had no say in the government. The Assembly was composed only of Spartan

soldiers. The senate or elders included only the chiefs and nobles. Gradually these nobles assumed most of the powers of government. They appointed two Kings, whose authority, as well as their term of office, was limited. Although the office was a great honor, the King's chief function was to lead in time of war. Practically all other powers were in the hands of the nobles. The assembly appointed five Ephors (ěf'ōrs), who were given such powers as declaring war, acting as judges, consulting with the senate, and announcing the laws of the assembly. The Kings and Ephors were limited in all their powers by the elders or chiefs. Sparta never progressed any farther than this in affairs of government.

Spartan Education.

Sparta was a military camp. Her one purpose was to build a strong army and prepare her citizens for war. Every male Spartan was a soldier, and all his property, including his family, belonged to the state. When a Spartan boy was born he was examined by the elders. If he was crippled or sickly he was taken to the mountain-side and left to die. If physically fit he was returned to his mother to stay with her until he was seven years old.

At this age the boy left his home and mother and started his military schooling. With a group of other boys he was forced to endure hardships, such as sleeping on the bare floor, eating plain food, and suffering physical pain without murmuring. He was taught by his elders the duties of a citizen of Sparta. His first allegiance was to his country.

A system of training was also provided for the girls. It consisted chiefly of strenuous physical culture, its primary object being to develop strong, healthy women—the mothers of a hardy race.



EDUCATION

A Greek youth accompanied by his pedagogue.

An Ordeal for Youths. When the boy was eighteen years old he had to overcome some great obstacle, or perform some brave act, after which he must fast for many hours, sometimes days. Last of all he underwent severe punishment, and if he came through this without a complaint he was permitted to associate with the men at the mess tables and in the ranks. At the age of thirty a man was received into full citizenship. The Spartans became great warriors. They refused to build a wall around their city, considering this a cowardly act of weakness. The motto of the Spartan soldiers was, "Come home with your shield or on it"—which meant to die rather than to come home defeated and without their shields.

Helots or Slaves. This vast military system left little time for the Spartan citizen to follow any other pursuit. And the State saw to it that he need not worry over this. Whenever early Sparta conquered another town she forced the inhabitants into slavery. The slaves, or helots as the Spartans called them, had no political rights; they belonged to the State. These unfortunate people were loaned to the citizens to do the farm work and tend the herds. The Spartans repaid the State by rendering military service and by placing a portion of their farm products in a common storehouse. These helots outnumbered their Spartan masters nearly nine to one. The Spartans thus developed a great military state, but they never achieved the commercial, cultural, or political importance of Athens.

Athens—Its Government. Athens is situated in Central Greece, in the country of Attica. The Athenians soon mastered the surrounding towns in Attica, and became the center of a large city state. The government of Athens was at first in the hands of kings. But gradually the nobles, who were the large land holders, acquired much of the power. The office of king was finally made elective for one year, and the only power he possessed was that of a high priest. Any of the nobility were eligible for this office. The real rulers, however, were nine nobles called archons, who distributed the executive, legislative, and judicial power among themselves. They were supposed to commit the laws to writing, but few of the people were able to find out what the laws were. Thus

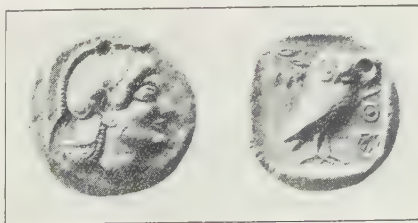
Athens was in the hands of the wealthy land-holding nobility.

The Poorer Classes. The poor peasants had a hard time working their lands and gaining a livelihood. The nobles owned the land, charged excessive rents, and stole property from the people whenever they desired. The farmer had no political or judicial redress. The old assembly of the people had no power left. The nobles took more and more land in payment of debts, and many of the farmers were forced into slavery. Many sought new methods of gaining a living; some learned trades and others became seamen.

The Wealthy. The merchant class in the city of Athens was becoming richer and richer. The Athenian merchant ships were plying between the Orient and Greece. Gradually some of this merchant class became even wealthier than the nobles. Since these wealthy merchants were able to supply many of the needs of the government, they demanded certain privileges in the government. They attained their ends, and thus a new element was added to the Athenian plutocracy (rule by wealthy people).

Draco, 621 B.C. The great mass of people, however, were not satisfied and several rebellions took place. The farmers and many of the lesser merchants and citizens took part in the first rebellion. Thinking to appease the people, the rulers appointed Draco, one of the nobles, to put all the laws together (codify) and publish them. This he did, but the laws of Draco were simply the old harsh laws written down. There was no relief for the masses, and things were getting worse on account of a new financial system in Athens.

Money. The Oriental countries had long before adopted a system of coinage. Just prior to the Draconian Laws the inconvenient system of barter was replaced by money in Athens. The most common silver coin was the drachma, equivalent to about twenty



EARLY GREEK COIN

On one side is the head of Pallas; on the other, an owl and olive branch.

cents in our money. The landed nobility and merchants now demanded their payments not in produce but in money. It was scarce, and the poorer classes could not get the money at all, while those a little more fortunate had to pay excessive rates of interest. Thus the majority of people, with no political rights, deprived of their lands, heavily in debt, and seeing no hope for the future in Athens, sought homes in other lands.

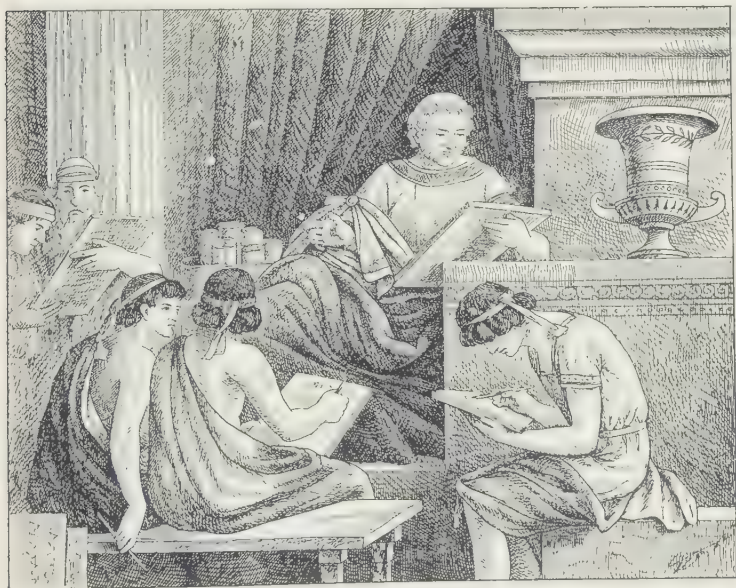
Causes for Greek Colonizing. It was not alone in Athens that the people were feeling the injustice of the political rings, but in other city states as well. It was about this time that the Greeks started to colonize nearly every part of the known world. Since the eighth century B.C. the Greeks had been trading with the peoples on the mainland of the Black and Mediterranean Seas, as well as the islands. At first they established trading posts or business houses. Many of the young Greeks went out to these trading posts as clerks, while artisans and laborers helped in the work necessary for their upkeep.

Where the Greeks Settled. Some Greek colonies had sprung up on the shores of the Black Sea and in Egypt. Numerous trading posts were established in Italy; and one hundred years before the period of written history in Rome began, so many Greek colonies had been established that the entire southern part of the Italian peninsula was called *Magna Græcia* (Great Greece). The people of Corinth had a large colony on the island of Sicily called Syracuse. It was to these colonies that the poorer classes in Athens now turned; in these fertile lands they could start anew. Large groups banded together, elected a leader, and went to settle in their new homes.

Political Status of Colonists. These colonies owed no allegiance to the mother country. The people became independent as soon as they left their old homes. This was very different from the practice of colonizing nations of later times.

Solon, 594 B.C. Conditions in Athens, however, did not improve. The Draconian Laws still worked their hardships on the people who remained. The nobles took their land without any claim to it whatsoever. Men, in order to pay their debts, sold their wives and children into slavery. A

second revolution occurred, and Solon (sō'lōn), a noble who had won the hearts of the people by his military heroism, was chosen Archon in 594 B.C., with almost absolute power. Solon reorganized the government and made new laws. So well did he accomplish his work that he has come down in history as the Law Giver.



SOLON DICTATING LAWS

Solon's Laws. Solon canceled all the debts of the peasants. He freed all the Athenians who had been forced or sold into slavery. He forbade the sale of Athenian women and children in the future. No man was allowed to own more than a reasonable amount of land. Every father was forced to teach his boy a trade, so that compulsory vocational education was begun at this early date. Aside from these social and economic reforms, Solon reorganized the government.

The people were divided into four classes according to their wealth. A senate was formed, consisting of four hundred

nobles at first and later of six hundred. All laws originated in the senate; but in the assembly, which was composed of all classes, they were discussed before final enactment. Public opinion thus played a large part in the government.

Every citizen now had the right of trial by jury. From the assembly, men over thirty-five years of age were chosen to act as jurors, and before these jurors the plaintiff and the defendant pleaded their own cases.

One of Solon's laws will not meet with our approval. This was the law which forbade women to appear at public gatherings. The Athenian women possessed very few privileges, and lived a more or less secluded home life.

Influence of Solon. In all other things Solon stands out as one of the greatest constructive political reformers of all ages. He must have been a man of strong character to have accomplished these reforms. He probably made many enemies among the wealthy nobility, but his policy of a "square deal" for all made him many friends among the more numerous lower classes. Both Sparta and Athens had constitutions before Solon's time, which was something new in the history of world progress. But Solon gave Athens a constitution with a democratic government and economic opportunity. Political justice softened the old grievances, and the Athenians started to work for their city instead of against it. Solon was not ambitious for power, and the year following the completion of his reforms he resigned of his own free will.

Political Parties. There soon grew up in Athens, because of the large assembly and divided interests, several political parties. It became the aim of a few ambitious men to gain control of the various parties, and then have themselves placed at the head of the government. In Greek history they were called tyrants, but were really political bosses. Many of these tyrants were good rulers, but most of them were mere despots, and the word tyrant has come to mean that today.

Ostracism. The Athenians did not like this usurpation of power by the tyrants. A man by the name of Cleisthenes went before the assembly and offered a remedy. He was given the power to put his reforms into action. One of these provided that at the end of each year the assembly could vote on any leader whom they considered dangerous to the

government. A person so condemned was temporarily banished from the country or excluded from all the privileges of citizenship. Because each member cast his vote on a piece of pottery (ostraka) the penalty was called ostracism. This law was introduced about 500 B.C.

Just as Athens was rising to new cultural, economic, and political heights the Persians were getting ready for their attempted conquest of Greece, and all the Greeks for the next few years were occupied in stemming the tide.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Why did the people at this time believe in the Delphic Oracle?
Read the description of the shrine of Apollo at Delphi and the Amphictionic Council as given in Davis' *Readings in Ancient History* (Greece) or Tappan's *Story of the Greek People*, Chapter III. How did the Delphic Oracle influence the history of Lydia? Of Persia?
2. In what economic stage of development were the early Hellenic tribes when they left their native lands?
3. What evidence had Heinrich Schliemann that Troy had really existed at one time?
4. What did the Greeks acquire from the Ægeans? From the Phœnicians?
5. Of what value are legends and myths?
6. What was the value of the Olympic Games in ancient Greece? What value have they today for the world?
7. What were the weak points in Spartan education? In Spartan government?
8. Was ostracism an autocratic or a democratic device at the time it was adopted? Would it be advisable today?
9. Write a composition comparing the reasons that impelled the English colonists to come to America with those of the Athenians to go to Italy. Reference: Chapter XXVI.
10. Chapter III in *The Story of the Greek People*, by Eva March Tappan, tells how the early Greeks lived. Read this chapter and compare Greek life with that of the early Egyptians (see Chapter III of this book). The answer to this question may well take the form of oral recitation, written composition, chart, picture, or cartoon.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

Reports from the following references will not only prove interesting, but will aid in the better understanding of the history of the early Greeks.

I. Guerber, *Story of the Greeks*: Chapters XIV to XIX, The Trojan War; The Blind Poet; XXI to XXVIII, Sparta; XXIX to XXXII, the Olympic Games and Olympic Athletes, including the girls' games.

II. Tappan, *Story of the Greek People*, Chapter V, The Early Days of Athens—The Laws of Solon; Chapter VI, The Rule of Pisis'tratus the Tyrant; Chapter VII, The Olympian Games. Write a description of a modern Olympiad and compare it with those described in this chapter.

III. Read the following pages in Van Loon's *Story of Mankind* and compare the conditions in Greece at that time with those of America today: (1) The Greek Cities, p. 58; (2) Greek Self-Government, p. 62; (3) Greek Life, p. 66; (4) The Greek Theater, p. 71.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

WELLS	<i>Outline of History</i> , Chapter XXI	Macmillan
GAYLEY	<i>Classic Myths</i>	Ginn
HOPKINSON	<i>Greek Leaders</i>	Houghton
MORRIS	<i>Historical Tales</i>	Lippincott

HISTORICAL NOVEL

SNEDAKER	<i>The Perilous Seat</i> (romance of Delphi centered around the Delphic Oracle)	Doubleday
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CHAPTER VI

GREECE—ATHENIAN AND MACEDONIAN SUPREMACY

The Ionians. Along the border of the Ægean Sea, in Asia Minor, west of the Kingdom of Lyd'ia, lay the small Greek country of Ionia. The Ionians on the mainland and on the islands of the Ægean Sea, like their kinsmen in Greece, had formed themselves into numerous city states. These people had developed large manufacturing and commercial interests.

The citizens had become wealthy, and most of the hard work was done by the numerous slaves. Among the Ionians some of the greatest philosophers and scientists of the age were to be found. This country might have played an even more influential part in the progress of man if the city states had only united.

Lydian Policy of Government. The Lydians under Cræsus, desiring a seacoast, took advantage of this lack of political unity and conquered the Ionian cities. Cræsus liked the Greek customs and ways. He often consulted the Delphic Oracle, and worshiped the Greek gods. The Ionian cities enjoyed many privileges under Cræsus. The control of the seas was all that he asked. The Ionians were not to enjoy this lenient policy very long, for the Persians conquered Lydia and became masters of the Orient.

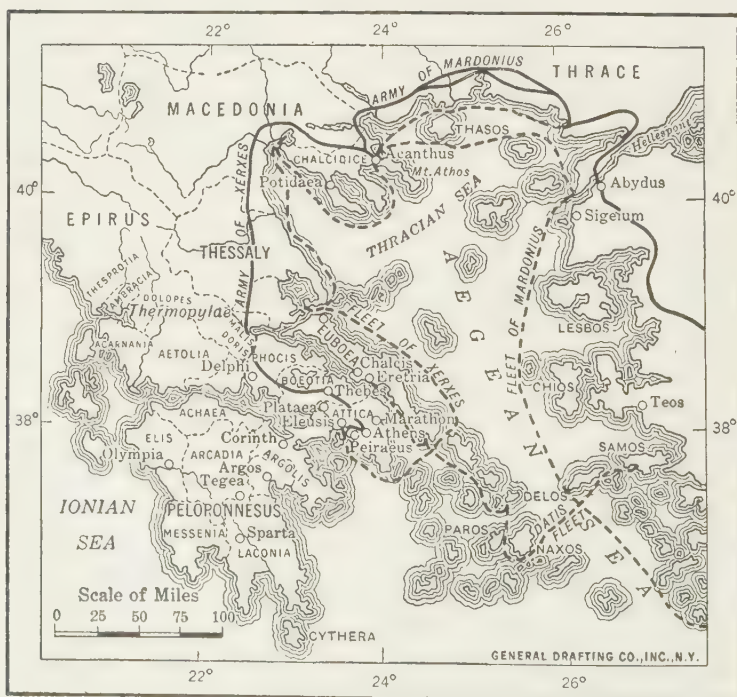
Cyrus. The Ionian sympathies had been with the King of Lydia, but after his defeat they became alarmed and offered their allegiance to Cyrus. He placed Ionian rulers over the different cities, but in order to gain the favor of the Persian King they became harsh tyrants. The successor of Cyrus, as we have already seen, was Cambyses (kām-bī'sēz), who conquered Egypt.

Darius. Darius followed Cambyses as King of Persia and began the organization of his conquered countries. He divided his empire into many provinces, and placed over each province a ruler called a Sā-trap. Vast military roads connected these satrapies, so that his armies could be rushed from place to place wherever they were most needed. The satraps were responsible for the collection of the tribute money which the people in the provinces were forced to pay for the upkeep of the empire. The subject peoples were also forced to serve in the Persian army, and to fight in their wars.

The Ionian Rebellion. The Persian rule was so despotic that the Ionians rebelled, and called on their kinsmen in Greece for aid. Athens and some other city states responded, but the allied forces were soon defeated. Darius now sought vengeance on the Athenian people for their part in the Ionian rebellion. The Persian hosts were gathered, and the first of the three Persian invasions of Greece was soon under way. Most of the Greek city states, now in the midst of petty

internal wars, were forced to stop fighting and meet the common danger.

First Persian Invasion, 492 B.C. Mardonius, son-in-law of Darius, was placed in charge of a large army and fleet. The Persian army gathered on the European mainland across the Hellespont. The Persian fleet sailed north from the Ionian islands to the same place. The plan was for the Persian army to march along the coast of the *Ægean* Sea through Thrace into Macedonia, and then pass through the Vale of Tem'pe in Thessaly, and on down into Athens. The fleet was to keep in touch with the army by sailing along the coast. It carried most of the provisions, and was therefore important for the success of the expedition. The Persian army was forced to fight nearly all the way along the

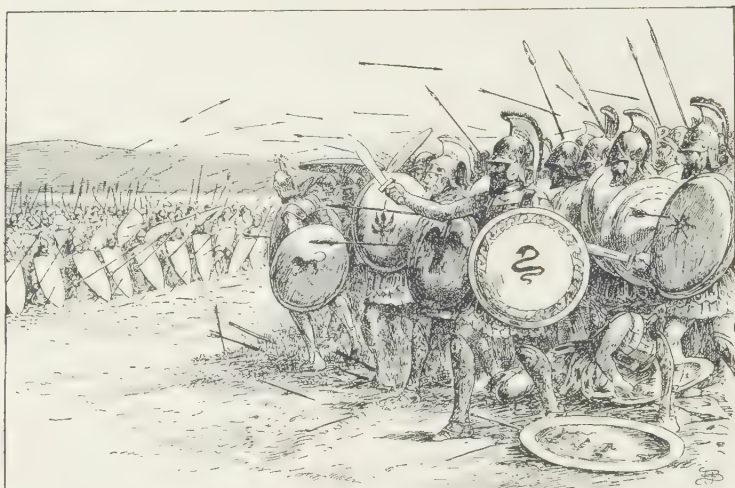


ROUTES OF THE PERSIAN INVASIONS

route, for the Thracians and Macedonians put up a strong resistance. The fleet was destroyed in a storm off the coast of Chalcidice (kāl-sīd'ī-se), near the promontory of Mount Athos. It was necessary, therefore, for the Persians to abandon their attack for the present.

Second Persian Invasion, 490 B.C. Darius did not give up the idea of conquering Greece. Two years later he fitted out an expeditionary force and collected six hundred troop ships. Under two trusted generals the large army was landed on the coast of Eubœa, opposite Attica. The Persians conquered Eubœa, reëmbarked on their transports, and landed at Marathon, thirty miles from Athens. Consternation reigned among the Athenians. The ten generals of their small army were undecided as to what course to take. Sparta had promised aid, but had not sent it. Phidippides, a trained distance runner, was sent to Sparta to notify the Spartans of the danger. He made the distance there and back, one hundred and fifty miles, in forty-eight hours. The Spartans, because of superstition, could not leave until there was a full moon. So the Athenians were practically alone in their defense.

Battle of Marathon. Under the influence and leadership of Miltiades (mīl-tī'a-dēz) the Athenians decided to go on to Marathon and meet the enemy. Here the Athenians charged the much larger Persian army. The Persians were great bowmen, while the Greeks used mainly long spears. Miltiades decided, when within about a half mile from the Persian lines, to charge on the run. This was done because as soon as the Athenians could reach the enemy, and engage them in a hand to hand conflict, the Persians would be unable to use their bows and arrows. The plan succeeded. The Persians were routed and ran to the shore. Here they took to their ships, as many as could, and sailed away. Miltiades thought they would probably sail around and attack Athens from the sea. To warn the inhabitants, Miltiades sent Phidippides to Athens to announce the victory and to caution the Athenians to be on their guard. The runner, who had taken part in the battle, ran the twenty-two miles from Marathon, delivered his message, and dropped dead. Our marathon races get their name from this event.



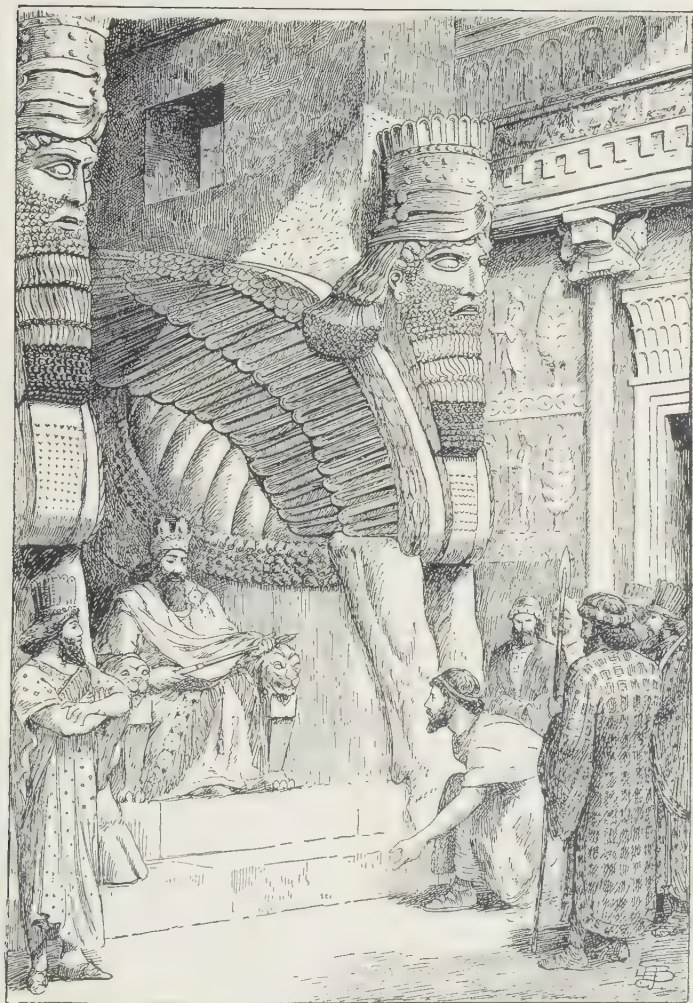
BATTLE OF MARATHON

The Greeks are shown charging amid a shower of Persian arrows.

Importance of Marathon. Marathon was one of the decisive battles in the world's history. It helped to decide whether Oriental political despotism or the growing Greek democracy was to be handed on to later generations. Miltiades reached Athens ahead of the Persian fleet, but there was no more fighting. The invaders once more gave up the attempt to conquer Greece; but it turned out to be only a truce.

Ten Year Interim. There was a ten year respite between the second and third Persian invasions. Darius utilized the time in quelling uprisings throughout his empire and in making vast preparations for another attack. But few men in all Greece seemed to sense the coming storm and prepare for it in a farsighted way.

Themistocles and Aristides. Themistocles (thê-mîs'tô-klêz) of Athens was one of the few men who advocated preparedness. He thought that the best protection against foreign attack lay in a large navy, since the country was almost entirely surrounded by water. Aristides (ar'îs-tî'dêz), who had a large following in Athens, opposed the naval policy of The-



THEMISTOCLES AT THE PERSIAN COURT

After the Persian Wars Themistocles, who commanded the victorious Greeks in the naval battle at Salamis, was banished from Athens for accepting bribes. He appealed to the Persian King Artaxerxes, son of Xerxes, for protection. This was granted and he became a great favorite of the King. Some time later Greece and Persia again prepared for war. Artaxerxes then called on Themistocles to aid him. Rather than fight against his former comrades, Themistocles bade farewell to a few of his friends, took poison, and died.

mistocles, on the ground that an army could better defend the country and at the same time would not prove so expensive. By a vote of the assembly Aristides was ostracized and Themistocles gained his point. Athens now took control of the silver mines in Attica, and used the profits to construct a large navy. Within the next few years Athens developed into a great naval power.

Third Persian Invasion, 480 B.C. Darius was succeeded by his son Xerxes (zürk'sēz). Under this monarch a large army and navy were mobilized for the third attack on Greece. Determined to avoid another catastrophe off Mount Athos, the Persian engineers cut a canal through the land back of the promontory. This work required three years, so difficult was the task. In order that the huge army might move quickly from Asia Minor to the mainland of Europe, a bridge of boats was built across the Hellespont. In the spring of 480 B.C. the Persian army, under the leadership of Xerxes, started for Greece. Just as in the first Persian invasion, the fleet was to accompany the army around the coast. This army, composed of some twenty thousand fighting men, and thousands of camp followers and attendants, reached northern Greece.

Greek Plan of Defense. In order to get into central Greece the Persians had to go through the Pass of Thermopylæ (thēr-mōp'ī-lē). At this place the mountains extended to within twenty feet of the sea. This was the open door to Athens; but so narrow was it that only a few men could pass through it at one time. A handful of Greeks stationed here could guard the pass against the Persian hosts as they attempted to file through. At a council of war it was decided that the Greek fleet should be stationed off the coast to ward off the Persian fleet.

Battle of Thermopylæ. Sparta was at this time having another religious festival, and sent only three hundred men under their King, Lēon'idas, to help in this common danger. Leonidas was chosen the leader of about two thousand Thespians and Thebans, besides his Spartans, to hold the pass at Thermopylæ. For two days and nights the Persians tried to advance, but were cut down by the Greeks as they charged the narrow gateway.

Spartans Defeated. On the third day a Greek deserted to the Persian army, and showed Xerxes a secret pathway through the mountains. The Greeks, alarmed at this, wanted to retreat. Leonidas told them that all who desired could leave, but the law of Sparta required that he and his men should stay, and die to the last man rather than retreat. Some of the Thespians and Thebans remained, but the entire force hardly numbered a thousand men. Attacked from front and rear, they were nearly all killed. One Spartan, too sick to take part in the defense, returned to Sparta; but he lived in disgrace.

Artemesium. The Greek navy had fared better. The enemy fleet was partly wrecked in a storm and the rest of it was defeated at Artemesium.



BATTLE OF SALAMIS

In the narrow strait between the islands of Salamis and Attica the Greeks won a decisive victory over the Persians. From his throne erected on the coast, Xerxes, the Persian King, witnessed the defeat of his navy.

Battle of Salamis. The Persian army poured into central Greece and then marched to Athens. The city was deserted. Themistocles placed all the fighting men on ships,

and sent the rest of the people away to places of safety. Xerxes burned the city to the ground. In the narrow strait between the island of Salamis and Attica, Themistocles placed his fleet. The Persians had many more vessels, but in a naval battle at this time it was the aim of the triremes to ram enemy ships and thereby sink or disable them. In this narrow pass, as at Thermopylæ, numbers did not count, for the Persians could get into the strait with only a few ships at a time. The Greek navy won a splendid victory.

Battle of Plataea, 479 B.C. Xerxes had had a throne erected at a point on the coast where he could watch the battle. As soon as he saw the Persian hopes blasted he made ready for a return to Asia Minor. He left his army of 100,000 men in Thessaly, under Mardonius, for the winter. The next spring, at the battle of Plataea (pla-tē'ā), this army was almost annihilated, and by the largest all-Greek army that had ever been assembled. Spartans, Thebans, Corinthians, and Athenians faced this common danger and then, unfortunately, went their separate ways. About the same time the Persian fleet was defeated. Persia never again invaded Greece, but the war dragged on with the Ionian cities.

The Delian League. These Greek states in the Ægean Sea called on Athens for aid against Persia. Athens responded, and the result was the formation of the Dē'lian League. This was a union with Athens of many of the small city states in the Ægean. Each city was to contribute a certain amount of money for the support of a common navy. The seat of government was to be on the island of Delos, where all the cities sent their representatives, each state having one vote in the council. Here also was the treasury. Athens was to be the head of the league. The result of this united effort was the gradual expulsion of the Persians from all the Greek cities in the league.

The Athenian Empire. The other cities on the mainland were extremely jealous of the influence of Athens in this league. The Spartans, time and time again, attempted to thwart Themistocles and the Athenians in their effort to rebuild their city. Athens, however, completed a wall thirty feet high and twelve feet wide guarding the river Piræus (pī-rē'ūs) which led from the city down to the sea. Event-

ually most of the cities in the Delian League became merely the subjects of Athens. Thrace in northern Greece, with its valuable mines, was conquered and brought under Athenian control. Italy and Sicily had several cities that paid allegiance to Athens.

The Age of Pericles,

460-429 B.C. The government of Athens changed about this time. Generals elected by the assembly ruled over this new empire. About 460 B.C. Pericles (per'ī-klēz), one of the greatest statesmen in Greek history, was elected to the highest office; and for the next thirty years Athens had the most glorious period in her history. Pericles was a great soldier. He had taken part in many of the wars that had brought Athens to her supreme position in the world. But more important than this, as head of the government of Athens he encouraged literature, science, and art. In literature and art Greece has never been surpassed.



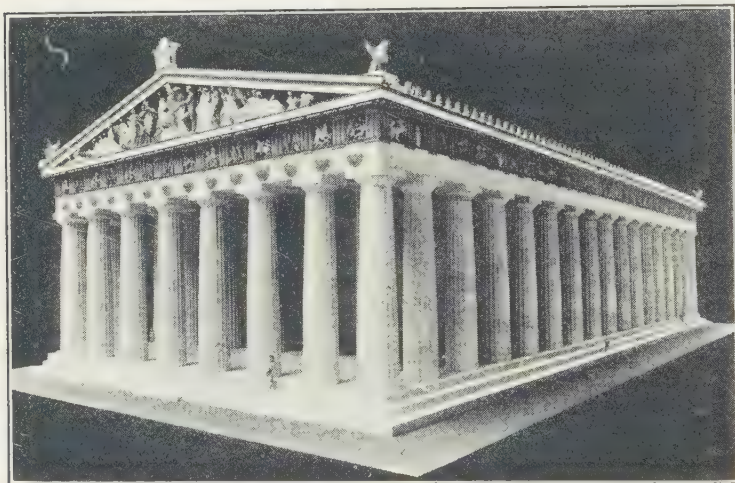
PERICLES

Under his leadership the years between 445 and 431 B.C. are known as the Golden Age of Athens.

Pay for Government Work. One of the most important acts of government by Pericles was the introduction of pay for all people who served on juries or who represented the people in the making and enforcing of the laws. This allowed a poor man to take part in his government. The representatives in the British parliament were not given such consideration until the latter part of the nineteenth century, A.D.

The City of Athens. Pericles used the vast sums of tribute money, the wealth of the Thracian mines, and the treasures of Delos to build stately public buildings. He probably had no right to the money, which really belonged to the old

Delian League; but the purpose for which it had been collected no longer existed. The Persians had been driven from the seas, and mainly by Athens; so Pericles devoted the money to the public good of Athens.



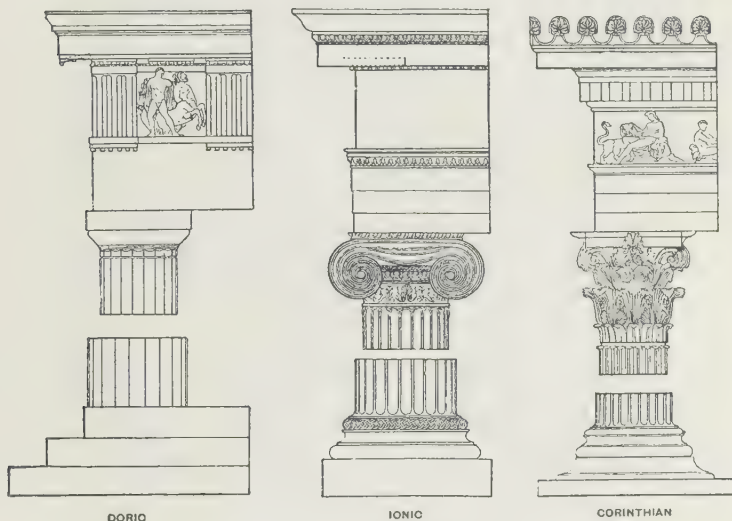
From the model at the Metropolitan Museum

THE PARTHENON (A Reconstruction)

The Parthenon, erected during the time of Pericles as a temple to the goddess Athena, was used later as a Christian church and then as a Mohammedan mosque. In 1687 A.D. the Venetians bombarded Athens, which was then occupied by the Turks. The Parthenon, used as a powder magazine by the Turks, was struck by a Venetian shell, which caused the destruction of walls and many of the columns.

Architecture. Almost in the center of Athens was a large hill, about 150 feet high, called the Acropolis. Upon this hill Pericles had the great architect Phidias (fĭd'ĭ-as) build a temple to the goddess Athena. This temple was called the Parthenon. About the same time, a famous sculptor made the immense bronze statue of Athena which stood at the entrance to the temple. Another statue of Athena about thirty feet high, made of gold and ivory, stood within the temple. Above the large Doric colonnades which extended around the building, as well as within the colonnades around the walls of the building, were sculptured many figures rep-

representing Greek heroes, gods, and events. Upon the Acropolis stood many other beautiful buildings and works of art.

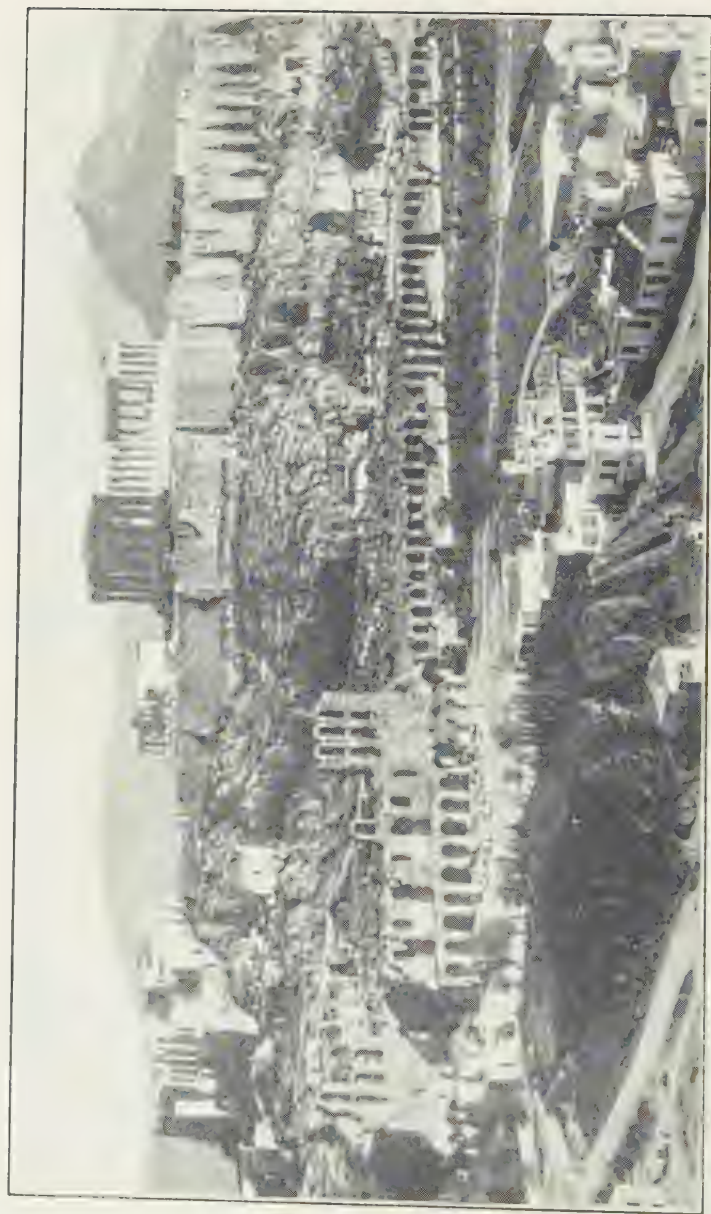


THREE STYLES OF GREEK ARCHITECTURE

The Doric, of which the columns of the Parthenon were an example, was the oldest and simplest style.

Home Life of the Athenians. While the many beautiful temples and other public buildings added to the beauty of Athens, the private homes of the Athenians were little better than those of early times. They were small houses, with four or five rooms facing on a court. Within this court were benches, where the family gathered for their evening chat with visitors or with one another. There were no windows or chimneys in the houses. The sanitary conditions were extremely poor. Garbage and refuse would soon accumulate. The streets were narrow and crooked, and heavy rains turned them into mud puddles.

Education. There were no public schools in Athens. Education depended upon the wealth of the family. The children, up to the time they were seven years old, were taught by the mother in the home. When seven years of age the



THE ACROPOLIS AT ATHENS
The ancient ruins form an interesting contrast to the modern houses in the foreground.

Athenian boy was sent to one of the many private pay schools of the day. Here he learned to read and write, to recite the Homeric poems, and to play various musical instruments. Dancing was taken up, to add grace and dignity to posture. Most of this was group work, in order to be ready to participate in the dancing at festivals and other public affairs. At the age of sixteen the boy's education was taken over by the State. If of pure Athenian blood he went to the field to the north of the city, called the Academy. Here he practiced athletics and military tactics. After two years of this training he was given garrison duty with the army. The Athenian boy of mixed blood attended the field to the east of the city, called the Lyceum. Here he was given a similar course of instruction.

Need for Better Education. During the time of Pericles a new group of teachers began to change the educational thought of the day. People were beginning to doubt the existence of the Olympic gods. They were studying the forces of nature and attributing scientific causes for the thunder, the lightning, and other phenomena. The study of medicine was finding new causes for disease other than the anger of the gods. Hippoc'rates contributed more to the new medical science than anyone else. The architecture and science of the day called for knowledge of mathematics, while the democratic government required intelligent citizens.

The Philosophers. One of the first Greek philosophers was Soc'rates. He did not believe in the Greeks' mythical gods, but taught that virtue was acquired by knowledge. His idea was to find out which of two alternatives was right, and then to do the right thing. He wandered around the city streets and in the market places, engaging people in conversation. Socrates was condemned to death for corrupting the Athenian youth; it was said that he took away their religion and offered nothing in its place.

Plato. Plato, a pupil of Socrates, became one of the greatest philosophers and political writers of his time. He wrote down most of the sayings of Socrates and handed them on to future generations. Plato was the author of a remarkable essay, *The Republic*, in which he pictured his idea of the city state. His school was in the Academy, and his most

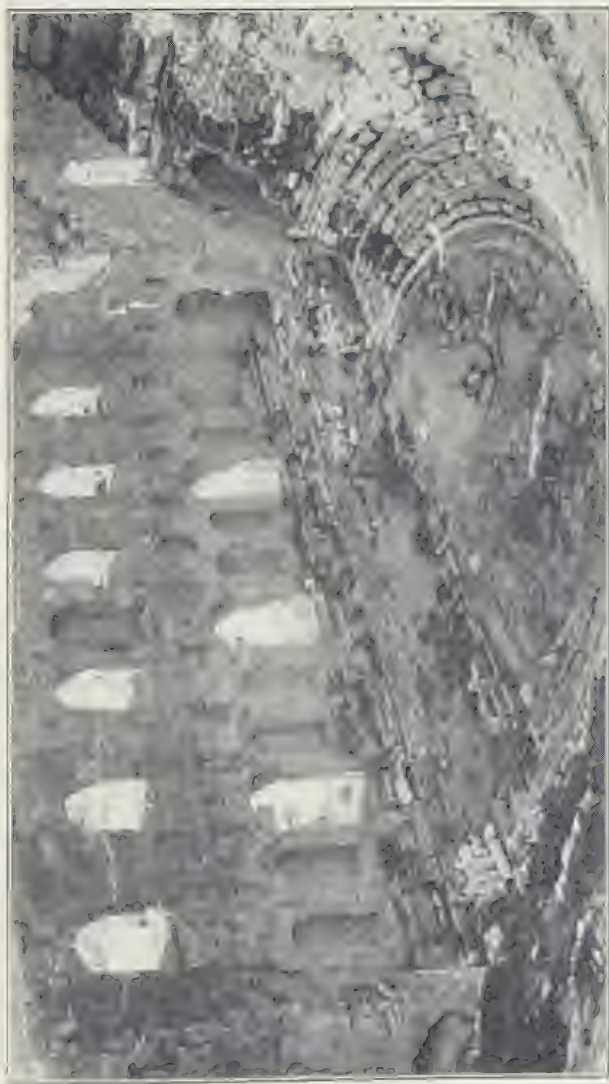
illustrious pupil was a boy from Macedonia named Aristotle (ăr'is-tōt'l).

Aristotle. Aristotle believed in a strong central government and in the institution of slavery. He had been the teacher of the young Macedonian prince Alexander, and it was under this prince—later King—that he received large sums of money to equip scientific expeditions. In this way he collected much data, which he organized in a systematic way for publication. Aristotle taught in the Lyceum, and his school became noted for its political research work.

The Dramatists. The theater in Athens was stationed on the Acropolis and played an important part in the life of the Athenians. Here, in the large open air structure, with the stone seats in sloping tiers, the men watched the tragedies in the morning and the comedies in the afternoon. Many of the tragedies were based on the Persian Wars. Some of the dramatists still believed in the Grecian gods, and their writings were full of faith in Zeus and the others to bring victory to the Hellenic people. In some instances the plays concerned the life of the lower classes of people. The comedies were often used for political purposes, by ridiculing leading citizens. Socrates, Pericles, and even the gods of Mt. Olympus came in for their share of the ridicule.

The Historians. Herodotus (hê-rōd'ō-tus) was the first noted Greek historian. His history of the world to the end of the Persian Wars is still read by many people and with more than passing interest. Thucydides (thû-sīd'ī-dēz) and Xenophon (zen'ō-fōn) wrote concerning the Peloponnesian Wars.

Demosthenes. In a government such as Athens, where men had to plead their cases before assemblies and the popular jury courts, oratory played a most important part in the political life of the times. During the great crises, or when questions of state were to be decided, the citizens assembled in large gatherings to hear the different viewpoints of leading citizens. Questions of importance were often decided under the spell of some eloquent speaker. The greatest of all Greek orators was Demosthenes (dê-mōs'thē-nēz). His fame rests largely upon his speeches (known as Philippics) against Philip II of Macedon. These were occasioned by the grow-



THEATER OF ATHENS

In this theater the early Greek drama developed. It began as a part of the spring celebration to Dionysus (Bacchus), the god of wine, animal life, and vegetation. Here the Greeks gathered to hear the songs and stories of the gods. Here it was that later Aeschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides presented their dramas.

ing ambition of Philip, who was planning a united Greece by means of conquest. Before we come to this, however, we must note the events that followed for the next sixty years after the death of Pericles, in 429 B.C.

Citizenship. Athens had produced great men in the time of Pericles,—scientists, philosophers, sculptors, artists, and politicians. The government was the most democratic and enlightened the world had known up to this time. But we must remember that this government was only for citizens; for every citizen there were several times as many slaves. Women had no voice at all in politics, and very few of the wives of the leading citizens could read. Many of the commercial and working classes were not of Athenian birth and therefore were debarred from political life. So, while citizens had much to do with their government, there were few citizens. This was one weak point in the state.

Foreign Policies. Another was the dissatisfaction of the Athenian dependencies. They were chafing under a rule that made them mere tributaries, for Athens had not learned to extend its citizenship. This was left for Rome to inaugurate and hand on to later civilization.

A Life of Ease. Aside from this, her leading people became haughty and softened by their life of ease. With the growing dissatisfaction within her own ranks she was unable to ward off the attacks of her jealous neighbors, Sparta, Corinth, and Thebes.

Peloponnesian Wars. During the sixty years after Pericles the Peloponnesian Wars were waged. Sparta overthrew Athens, and for a time made her influence felt. Thebes conquered Sparta, and became in turn the leading city in Greece. Then it was that Philip II of Macedon developed his plan of uniting all Greece. None of the city states had been strong enough to do it. Athens, Sparta, and Thebes had been weakened by the continual fighting; it would not be hard for a strong ruler to overcome them all.

Controversy over a United Greece. Many Greeks, like Isocrates, one of the students of Socrates, believed that the hope of Greece lay in its unification under the one leader, Philip. Demosthenes thought otherwise, and he continually spoke of the "Macedonian menace." He called on the Athē-

nians to fight, and Athens followed his advice. Philip, however, succeeded.

Philip II of Macedon. The planning of the great Macedonian Empire was the work of Philip. A great share of the credit has gone to his son Alexander, called the Great. In his early youth Philip had been a hostage in Thebes. In those early days, when one country or city captured another it took away the children of the most influential families. In this way the conquered cities were made to comply with all the demands of the victors, under the threat that if they did not comply their children would be put to death.

Weakness of Greek City States. Philip received a good Greek education. He was observant and noted the weakness of the Greek city states. He saw that jealousies had kept them apart, and he knew that as long as each city was unwilling to share its power with others Greece could never become a united nation. He was friendly with Aristotle, and probably came in contact with the teachings of Isocrates. These men were advocating a strong, united country under one leader. With all this influence Philip returned to Macedonia burning with the desire to make his country, with himself at the head, the leading power of all the Greek peoples.

The Army. Philip found his army in poor condition upon his accession to the throne in 360 B.C. He immediately started training and disciplining it. He used the old solid phalanx formation. The soldiers in front carried short spears while those in the rear carried longer ones, which protruded between the soldiers of the front rank. His army was reinforced on either flank by cavalry, which was equally useful for attack or defense.

Macedonia Conquers Greece. The Macedonian army soon conquered many of the surrounding states. Athens and Thebes, becoming alarmed, united; but their combined forces were defeated by Philip at the battle of Chæronea (kĕr'ô-nĕ'á), 338 B.C. The next year, at Corinth, the Greek states elected Philip general of all the Greek armies, and later recognized Macedonia as the leading Greek state. Just as his ambitions were being realized, Philip of Macedonia was assassinated, probably at the instigation of his wife; and his son Alexander, nineteen years of age, succeeded him.



ALEXANDER THE GREAT

Alexander's Early Training. Philip had carefully trained his son to follow in his footsteps. Some of the greatest teachers of the day, including Aristotle, had been employed to instruct the youth. He is said to have learned the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* by heart, and both seemed to fire him with an ambition to imitate the old Greek heroes. His military training had been gained in actual warfare. He had led a flank movement in the battle of Chæronea.

Alexander Quells Greek Uprisings. When Alexander ascended the throne many of the Greek states, on account of his youth, sought to free themselves from Macedonian rule. He maneuvered his army rapidly and crushed rebellion after rebellion. He leveled Thebes to the ground and had many of the inhabitants massacred. He enslaved the soldiers of the Theban army, numbering about 30,000 men. As the result of these tactics Greece was ready to acknowledge his leadership as it had Philip's.

The Persian Empire. Alexander now decided to attack Persia. This country was still supreme in the Orient. It was, however, composed of many subject peoples. And long ago the Greeks had found out how weak and unwieldy this power was. In the many rebellions that occurred the Persians had often hired soldiers (mercenary troops) from other countries.

Battle of the Granicus, 334 B.C. Alexander, knowing the Persian weakness and bent upon conquest, assembled his armies for war in the Orient. With 35,000 troops he crossed the Hellespont. The Persian Satraps made hasty preparations for defense. At the Granicus (grā-nī'kūs) River in Asia,

Alexander led his troops in person, defeated the Persians, and became master of Asia Minor.

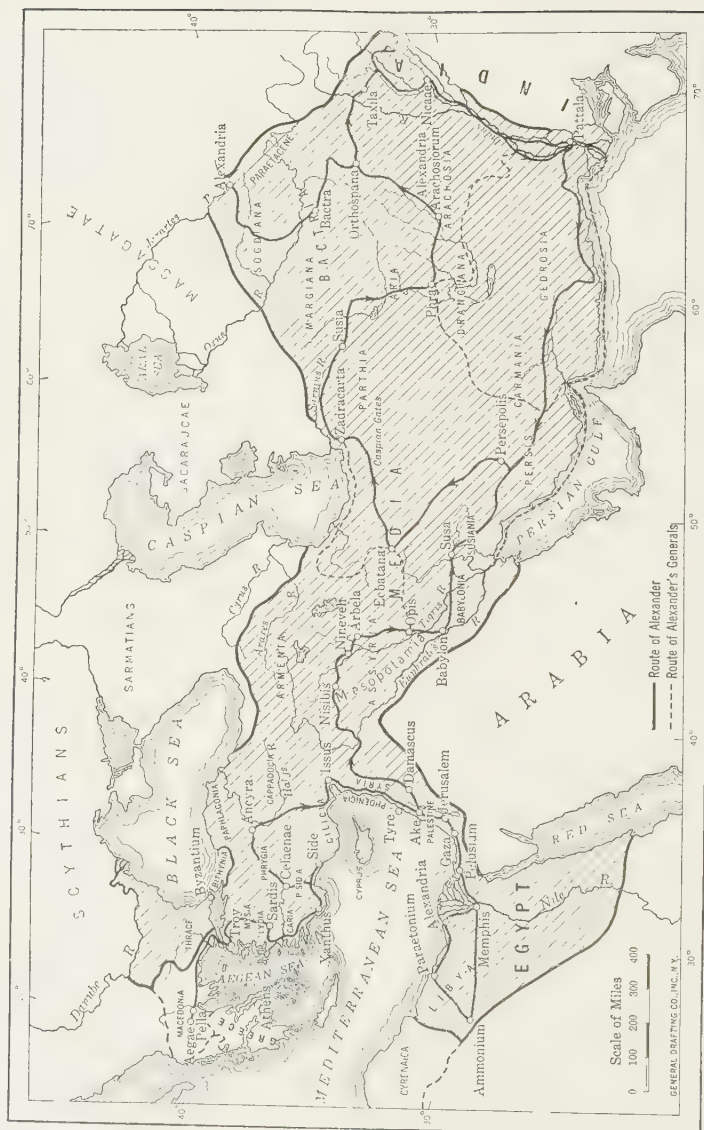
Battle of Issus, 333 B.C. After this battle Alexander decided to gain control of the seacoast. His first objective was Syria, inhabited as we have seen by the Phœnicians and others. At the battle of Issus (a narrow pass) Alexander defeated a Persian Army, under Darius III, their King, which outnumbered his army seven to one. He then laid siege to Tyre, using towers and battering rams.

Fall of Egypt. Having taken this city, he moved southward into Egypt. Egypt gladly surrendered and acknowledged him as its ruler. Alexander became infatuated with Egyptian customs. He visited the pyramids and temples. He consulted the oracle of the Egyptian god, Ammon Ra, and here he was told he was the son of this god. Egyptian flattery turned the young King's head. Much of his personal life in the Orient is the story of drunken brawls and luxurious living.

Founding of Alexandria. Alexander founded many cities in the East, some seventy in all. Seventeen of these he named Alexandria, after himself. The most important and lasting one, however, was the Alexandria that was built at the mouth of the Nile River. It soon became the leading city of the Orient.

Battle of Arbela, 331 B.C. Darius had proposed to Alexander, after the battle of Issus, a union of the two monarchs to control the whole Oriental world. The Euphrates was to be the dividing line. Alexander thought this a useless suggestion, as he considered himself perfectly able to accomplish his purposes alone. Thereupon, Darius with an army of almost one million men prepared to get rid of the Greek armies. Alexander met the Persian army at Arbela, near Nineveh, the old Assyrian capital. Darius surrendered, and the Persian Empire was now a thing of the past. Alexander was master of the largest empire that had ever existed.

Asiatic Conquests. For the next six years Alexander led his armies in Asia, conquering one country after another. He went south into India and conquered the Punjab'. He even contemplated conquering western Europe, but in the midst of his Asiatic conquests his soldiers refused to follow him any further. A few years later, at the age of thirty-two,



EXTENT OF ALEXANDER'S CONQUESTS

he died in Babylon. He had ruled an empire in pompous Oriental style. But he had established no strong system of government by which this vast territory could be controlled after his death, and so it was divided.

The Hellenistic Age. Alexander's conquests paved the way for the fusion of the Greek and the Oriental civilizations; and after his death there dawned a new era of science, art, and philosophy. Historians have called this the Hellenistic Age.

Archimedes. Archimedes (Ar'kĩ-mē'dēz) was born in Syracuse on the island of Sicily, about 287 B.C. He often visited Egypt, especially Alexandria, and it was probably here that most of his work was accomplished. He invented the lever and the pulley, and discovered the principle of specific gravity.

Galen. A medical university was established at Alexandria. Here dissecting rooms were provided for the study of anatomy. Huge charts were made of the various parts of the human body. All this material was later collected by Galen of Pergamum, a country in Asia Minor; and for a thousand years thereafter Galen was the authority on medical subjects.

Museum and University. The Ptolomies (tol'ō-mĩz), who now ruled over Egypt, had established the Museum at Alexandria, and had paid scholars to come and collect all sorts of data, and at the same time to teach. This was the reason for the work of the two foreigners, Archimedes and Galen, at this place. Other great scholars gathered here from time to time. Euclid built up and organized a systematic geometry, which is still used in our schools. Aristar'chus taught that the earth revolved around the sun. Hippar'chus, the great astronomer, developed the science of trigonometry. Eratosthenes (er'a-tōs'thē-nēz) measured approximately the circumference of the earth, which Aristotle long before had declared to be round.

Library at Alexandria. The library established at Alexandria was the largest and most famous in the world. Here copies were made of large numbers of books. The histories of Herodotus and Xenophon, the plays of Sophocles or Euripides, the books of Plato, or the works of Homer, could

now be read by any who would come to Alexandria. Works of science and of sculpture were also collected.

Epicurus and Zeno. The new philosophy of the times was embodied in the teachings of two Athenians, Epicurus and Zeno. The former taught that happiness was the greatest thing to attain in life. This happiness meant for Epicurus, however, the training of the mind, temperance, and virtue, not the later version of "eat, drink, and be merry." Zeno, called the Stoic because he taught from a painted porch called a stoa, maintained that virtue was the great aim to be attained, together with indifference to both pleasure and pain.

Our Debt to the East. We owe much to the Orient, and much to the Greeks, for our modern civilization. The work of the Ptolomies in Egypt was of vast significance in that it collected in a systematic way the culture of those times. Egypt prospered under these rulers for a while, and then their descendants became weak and unjust.

Rise of a New Power in the West. A new power, however, was rising in the western world. At this very time, 100 B.C., Julius Cæsar was born. With his armies he was to grasp the Hellenic civilization and pass it on to central and western Europe. This was most fortunate, for the conquerors of the East who came centuries after the Romans—the Turks—destroyed nearly every vestige of this great Oriental civilization.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Why is the possession of a sea so essential to the development of a great nation?
2. Was the Lydian policy of governing her colonies an advance over the Persian method? Why?
3. What was the effect of the death of Leonidas at Thermopylæ on all Greece? Do you know of any modern engagement that affected a country in the same way?
4. What were the weak points in the government of the Delian League?
5. Discuss one policy in which Pericles was far in advance of his age politically.
6. Compare the sanitary conditions of Cnossus with those of Athens; with those of a modern American city.

7. What was the importance of oratory in the time of Pericles?
Why is it not so important today?
8. What was the political advantage of the Greek theater?
9. What are your own ideas concerning the theories of Demosthenes and Isocrates as to whether Philip should be acknowledged as the leader of all Greece?
10. In what way was Philip II much wiser than Alexander?
11. Summarize the lasting results of Alexander's rule and conquests.
12. What would happen to our carpenters, masons, painters, and other skilled workmen if there were numerous slaves who could do this work for their owners?

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Make a report on the lives of some of the following men.
Reference: Haaren and Poland, *Famous Men of Greece*.

(1) Miltiades, the Hero of Marathon, (2) Leonidas at Thermopylæ, (3) Themistocles, (4) Aristides the Just, (5) Cimon, (6) Pericles, (7) Alcibiades, (8) Lysander, (9) Socrates—Plato—Aristotle, (10) Xenophon, (11) Epaminondas and Pelopidas (12) Philip of Macedon, (13) Alexander the Great, (14) Demosthenes.

II. From Tappan's *Story of the Greek People*, Chapters IX and X, prepare reports on the Persian Invasions. Read Chapter XX, on Alexander the Great, and make an outline map of his conquests.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

GUERBER	<i>Story of the Greeks</i>	American Book
DAVIS	<i>Readings in Ancient History (Greece)</i>	Allyn
VAN LOON	<i>Story of Mankind</i>	Macmillan
MORRIS	<i>Historic Tales—Greece</i>	Lippincott
JAMES	<i>Our Hellenic Heritage</i>	Macmillan
HOPKINSON	<i>Greek Leaders</i>	Houghton
PLUTARCH	<i>Lives</i>	

HISTORICAL NOVELS

DAVIS	<i>Victor of Salamis</i> (Describes the battles of Thermopylæ, Salamis, and Platæ)	Macmillan
SNEDEKER	<i>The Spartan</i> (Story of Leonidas and the survivor of the battle of Thermopylæ)	Doubleday

CHAPTER VII

ROME AND CARTHAGE

Eastern Mediterranean Influence on Italy. We have seen how the Phœnicians established their trading post at Carthage in northern Africa and how the Greeks colonized southern Italy and the island of Sicily about 800 B.C. Several hundred years before this a highly civilized seafaring people, of doubtful origin but very likely from one of the Oriental countries, had settled along the western coast of the Italian peninsula. These people were the Etruscans and their land was called Etruria (e-trōō'rĭ-a).

Why Early Settlers Came to Italy. Long before the Carthaginian, Greek, and Etruscan settlements, however, Indo-European tribes had wandered through the Alpine passes and located in central Italy. The most important of these were the Italic groups, hence the name Italian. For the same reason that the Nile, the Fertile Crescent, and Greece had been settled, these earliest people flocked into Italy. Here on the fertile plains the barbarian tribesmen could pasture their flocks. The climate was warmer and the land more productive than at their old homes in the north.

Physical Italy. The boot shaped Italian peninsula extends into the Mediterranean Sea. Its greatest length is about seven hundred miles, while its average width is about one hundred miles. In the north, acting as a barrier between it and the rest of Europe, are the Alps. The Apennine Mountains join the Alps in the west at Liguria (lĭ-gŭ'rĭa), near the source of the Po River. They then extend in a southeasterly direction until within forty miles of the coast; from here they continue parallel with the coast until Apulia is reached, when they bend southwest to the toe of the boot. The land in the north between the Alps and the Apennines is watered by the Po River. This northern section of Italy, with its rich soil, was partly occupied by a warlike people, the Gauls, about 500 B.C.

Rome. Since the Apennines are so near the eastern coast, the important rivers of central and southern Italy flow into



ITALY

The political divisions of the early peoples of the Italian peninsula.

the western or Etruscan sea. The Arno flows through Etruria. The Tiber River rises in the north central part of Italy and flows in a southwesterly direction, forming the boundary line between Etruria and Latium. The latter country had been settled by the Latins, a branch of the Italic tribes. On the south side of the Tiber, about twelve miles from its mouth, the Latins had established a trading post; and on a hill called the Palatine, overlooking the river and the post, a stronghold and village was built and called Rome.

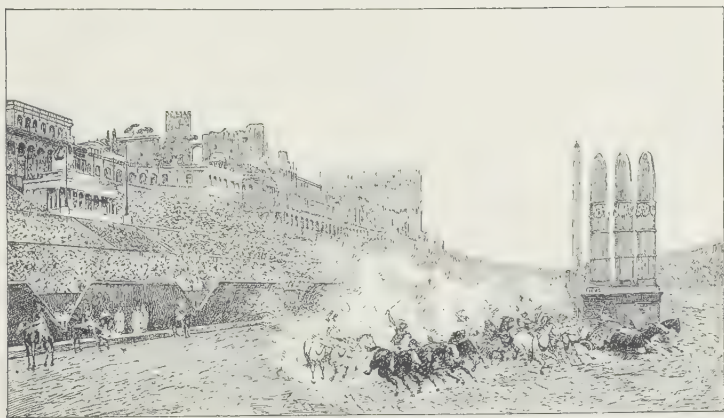
Early History of Rome. The early history of Rome is clouded by legends and myths. The founding of Rome by Romulus and the capture of the Sabine maidens are alluring stories, but we must turn to other evidence to get a picture of these early times and people.

Rome Supreme in Latium. Opposite the Palatine hill is another hill which was called the Quirinal (kwîr'î-năl). This seems to have been occupied at an early date by the Sabines, a tribe closely related to the Latins. After many bitter conflicts the Romans and Sabines formed a confederacy, with Rome at its head. The low, marshy land between the two hills was called the forum. This was the market place where the people met to barter their products, not only among themselves but with Greek, Phœnician, and Etruscan merchants who came up the Tiber. The common fortification of the Romans and Sabines was erected on a third hill called the Capitoline. There were four other hills in the close vicinity occupied by Latin tribes; and these people were eventually conquered, as well as all of Latium, by the Romans.

Rome Conquered by the Etruscans. Rome, situated on her seven hills, aroused the jealousy of her strong northern neighbor the Etruscans. About 700 B.C. the Etruscans crossed the Tiber and conquered Rome. Shortly after this other cities in Latium fell under the rule of the Etruscan kings. The early Romans owe much of their civilization to their conquerors from Etruria.

Public Works. After every rainstorm the low, marshy market place (forum) would be filled with water and filth. Besides being very inconvenient, this was extremely unhealthy. The first Etruscan King had a fine system of drains

and sewers built to carry off the water and dirt. Along the Tiber today the remains of these old Etruscan sewer drains can still be seen. He also started the erection of the temple to Jupiter (Zeus) on the Capitoline Hill, which was finished by another ruler of the same people.



From the painting by Gérôme

A ROMAN CHARIOT RACE

Circensian Games. In the valley between the Palatine hill and Mount Aventinus this first King had a huge athletic field built. Games from Etruria were introduced. Just as the Greeks met at Olympia so the Latin communities sent their athletes to the Circensian Games, or Games of the Circus. These were religious festivals to the Latin gods, as the Olympic games were to the Greek gods. Latin games were also established on the Alban hill in honor of Jupiter.

Expulsion of Etruscan Kings. Under these same Kings the seven hills were protected by a huge wall, probably erected in the time of Servius, the second Etruscan King. Political reforms took place at first during the reign of these Kings, but at length they became mere tyrants. Thereupon the Romans all united, overthrew the Etruscan Kings, drove them back into Etruria, and in 500 B.C. established a Republic. From this point on, the records of Roman history become more reliable.

Social Organization—The Family. Before we start the story of the political structure of the new government it will be necessary to tell something of the everyday life of the early Romans. The basic foundation of all Roman society was the family, at the head of which stood the father (*pater familias*). The other members included the wife, the sons with their wives and children, all unmarried daughters (married daughters joined their husband's families), and any adopted children or distant relatives.

Clients and Slaves. Attached to the family was also a class of people called clients. The clients were usually refugees or freed slaves. They could accumulate property and could ply their particular trade or enter business at Rome; but all their goods were held in the name of the father of the family to which they belonged. The slaves were the private property of the family, the same as the household furniture. They were usually the victims of war, as in the other countries we have studied.

Power of the Father. The authority of the father was absolute. He could sell his wife or his children. As a judge, within his family he had the power of life and death over any of its members, and from his decisions there was no appeal.

Ancestor Worship. In religious matters, within the home the father was the high priest. According to the common family worship the spirits of the dead ancestors were believed to watch over the destinies of the household. Before each meal small portions of food were thrown into the hearth, the abode of these spirits. These offerings were also to Vesta, the goddess of the hearth.

Position of Women in Roman Society. The wife and mother in the Roman family was highly respected. She shared many privileges with her husband. She sat at the same banquet table with him when he entertained, and helped receive the visitors. She attended the market and public entertainment. All these things, it will be remembered, were denied the women of Greece.

The Clan. A group of families made up a clan, the next social order of Roman society. All the families within the clan recognized a common ancestor. The Curia was a political

division, made up of several clans. The tribes in early Roman history consisted of ten *curiæ*.

Patricians and Plebeians. The most important people in Rome were the heads of these large families (clans). They became the leading citizens in political, social, and economic affairs, and were known as patricians. They were the only people who had the right to vote and to hold office. Marriage rites were valid only among patricians. Below the patricians were the plebeians, who enjoyed none of the political rights of the patricians. They were allowed, however, to hold property and to engage in trade, and must not be confused with the slaves. Much of Rome's early history is made up of the fight of the plebeians for political and social equality.

Roman Religion. Greek religion had a great influence on the Romans. Jupiter corresponded to the Greek god Zeus, and ruled in the sky. Mars (Greek, Ares) was the Roman war god. Venus, the goddess of beauty, was the Greek goddess Aphrodite. Janus, the double-faced god, protected the home. He stood in the doorway where he could see both on the outside and on the inside. Later he was made a national deity, and a temple was erected to him in the forum.



JANUS

The two doors of the temple were placed on the east and west sides, denoting the beginning and ending of the day. Between the doors stood this two-faced statue. Janus was the god of good beginnings, and the Romans believed that a good beginning was necessary for a good ending. At the commencement of any enterprise he was worshiped. When the Romans embarked on any military campaign the temple doors were thrown open, and when peace was proclaimed they were closed. We gain some idea of the martial spirit of the Romans when we learn that only twice from the time of the legendary kings of Rome to the days of the Emperor Augustus Cæsar, 31 B.C., were the doors of the temple of Janus closed.

Vesta (Greek, Hestia) was the goddess of the home and the

burning hearth. She, too, became a national deity; and in a circular temple there was built a common national hearth, cared for by Vestal Virgins. Other deities were Saturn, the god of agriculture, and Ceres, the goddess of grain. Besides these the moon, stars, rivers, and mountains were worshiped.



From the painting by Leroux

VESTAL VIRGINS

The loveliest among the Roman maidens were chosen to serve for thirty years the goddess Vesta, and to keep her sacred fire burning. From the age of six to sixteen the Vestal Virgins were taught the duties they were to fulfill for the next ten years. The last ten years they spent as instructors for the novices. They were the most privileged persons in Rome. They had their own apartments in the House of Vestals, which stood near the Roman forum.

Each Vestal had her own retinue of maid-servants and personal attendants. She had her own private stable, carriages, coachmen, and lictor. She was privileged to go anywhere in Rome at any time when not on duty. She could demand an interview with the Emperor himself. The best seat at the circus and at the amphitheatre was reserved for her. If, however, she was found guilty of any conduct unbecoming a Vestal, she was buried alive.

Religious Colleges. At the head of the Roman religion stood the chief priest, known as the Pontifex Maximus. He and his assistants, called pontiffs, had charge of the sacred colleges as well. These consisted of the Vestal Virgins, already mentioned, the heralds, and the augurs. The heralds,



A ROMAN STREET SCENE

Roman streets frequently were named from the trade practised therein: hence, the "street of sandalmakers," the "street of fruit merchants," etc. Shops usually occupied the street side of private houses. The front of the shops was open to the street, and was partly occupied by the counter, usually of masonry, which turned inward at right angles, leaving a narrow passageway at the side.

when occasion demanded, acted as messengers throughout Rome and also to foreign countries. The college of augurs was composed of priests who studied signs and omens. This was done particularly by noting the flight of birds or by studying the entrails of sacrificed animals. The augurs were consulted in Rome just as the oracles were in Greece, though the Delphian oracle was on many occasions used by the Romans.

Roman Industries. The Romans learned much about manufacturing and commerce from the Greeks. Everything that was made by the latter was soon being manufactured wherever possible by the Romans. Greek language and business transactions were copied to some extent.

Money. Money was probably used by the Romans about 400 B.C. As they came in contact with the Greek merchants, and trade became brisk, it was necessary to do away with barter. At first the Romans made copper blocks which, because they had taken the place of the oxen formerly used in their bartering, bore the figure of an ox. This was later changed, and a silver coin was minted resembling the Greek drachma.

Guilds. By 400 B.C. the Roman artisans had formed trade unions or guilds. These guilds were composed of members of one occupation, such as the weaver's guild or the shoemaker's guild. Each guild had a meeting place for its members; social gatherings were held, and they participated in parades during holidays. Their purpose was to create good feeling among their members and to care for the funeral expenses of their dead comrades.

The Roman Republic. Such was the religious, political, social, and economic status of her people when Rome formed the Republic, in 509 B.C. The chief executive power was now vested in two consuls, elected for one year by an Assembly. The Assembly consisted of the soldier citizens, both patrician and plebeian. Only patricians, however, could elect consuls. These consuls exercised judicial and military powers. In fact, with a few exceptions they enjoyed as much power as had the old kings. All the ceremony and splendor of the old régime was retained. The consuls were preceded in public by twelve servants, called lictors, bearing the Roman fasces.

The fasces were a bundle of rods, surrounding an ax, representing the power to flog and put to death.

The Dictator. There was one weak point in this joint power of the consuls, which was that each consul had the right to veto the acts of the other. This tended to weaken the concerted action of the nation. To avoid this, in times of special danger a dictator was elected by the Senate. The dictator served for six months, and during this period his power was absolute.

The Roman Senate. The Roman Senate after the fall of the monarchy became the ruling power of Rome. It was composed of patricians only, and one of its first acts under the republic was to close its ranks to plebeians. It forbade all its members to intermarry with this class, and ordered that all state offices should be filled by those of patrician rank. Another important function usurped by the Senate was the care of the college augurs; and no political or military undertaking could be sanctioned before the augurs had given their decision. It is plain that Rome was merely an oligarchy controlled by patricians.

Plebeians Under Early Republic. The plebeian voted for officers who had no sympathy with him, and laws were made favoring only the wealthy patrician class. The plebs fought the wars, and returned home only to find their fields unfilled as they could not afford to buy slaves. The prisoners that they took in battle were for the use of the wealthy, most of whom were stay-at-homes. Conditions went from bad to worse. The plebeians were forced to borrow money; and later, being unable to pay it back, were reduced to slavery. Public lands won from conquered countries were given to patricians, while the plebeians who had won the land were divested of all privileges and forced to work it.

Plebeian Revolt. These conditions could not be tolerated very long by the plebeians. Just as the common people of Athens twice revolted in the days of Draco and Solon, so now the plebeians, taking advantage of a serious outbreak along the Roman frontier, rebelled against patrician injus-



ROMAN
FASCES

tice. They left Rome and congregated on the Sacred Mount. Here they threatened to secede and build a city of their own. The patricians were alarmed, for they knew full well the strength of these people and their value to the Roman state. A delegation was sent to the plebeian leaders, and certain concessions were offered and accepted.

Patrician Concessions. The debts of the plebeians were canceled, and those who had been enslaved for debt were set free. Twelve plebeian magistrates (tribunes) were elected. They had the right to annul the act of any patrician magistrate who had dealt wrongly with a plebeian. Their homes were open day and night, and no one dared harm the person of a tribune; the penalty for such an offense was death. Other officers called the *ædiles* were elected from among the plebeians to aid the tribunes.

Further Concessions. With this much gained, the lower order became bolder and demanded that the laws be written down. Ten men, known as *decemvirs*, were appointed to do this, and in 450 B.C. the laws were written on twelve bronze tablets. These tablets were placed on the orator's platform in the forum, where everyone might read them. After a long fight the plebeians won other victories, such as the right of marriage into the upper class, and the appointment of military tribunes with the powers of consul. Eventually they gained even the consular office itself. While the plebeians were gaining these social and political rights they were also serving in the Roman army.

Political Rights Extended. As a military event the conquest of Etruria, which was finally accomplished by Rome, does not hold a very prominent place in Roman history. But the policy adopted by the victor in the government of its former enemy will always remain a landmark in the political progress of world history. The Etruscan freemen, with the same qualifications required of citizens in Rome, were given the right of Roman citizenship. As the Roman conquests increased Rome gradually extended her citizenship, and where this was not done she allowed a great deal of self-government in her provinces. Upon this policy hung the destiny of the Roman people. All her subjects considered themselves Romans, and it soon became the proud boast of

far-away peoples that they were citizens of Rome. How different was this policy, and its results, from that employed by the Assyrian and Persian Empires, where conquered provinces were considered merely subjects for plunder and manpower for war. Even Athens, though it made vast strides in the government under Solon and Pericles, never reached the point where it would grant citizenship to other peoples.

Sacking of Rome by Gauls, 390 B.C.

The Gauls left their northern homes in 390 B.C. and their objective was the city on the Tiber. They descended upon it, defeated the Roman army, and sacked the city. The Gauls collected a heavy ransom and then retired. The Roman people did not despair; the city was rebuilt on a larger and better plan.

Three Samnite Wars; 343-290 B.C.

Thirty years later the Romans started three long wars with the Samnites, a strong people to the south of Latium. Finally, the Gauls, the Etruscans, and most of the Italian countries united with the Samnites to overthrow Rome. The allies were defeated, and practically all of



A MOUNTED GAUL

Italy, with the exception of the Greek city of Tarentum near the heel of the boot, was made a part of the Roman Republic. Roman colonists now settled in these new territories, taking and retaining all their rights as Roman citizens. The former inhabitants were given many of these rights also.

War with Pyrrhus. The Greek cities in Italy, fearful lest the Romans should now attack them, appealed to Pyrrhus (pīr'ōs), King of Epirus, for aid. It did not take much coax-



ELEPHANTS IN ARMOR

Encountered by the Romans for the first time in their war against Pyrrhus.

ing to draw this monarch into a war. He was a cousin of Alexander the Great, and his one ambition was to establish an empire on much the same order as his famous kinsman had done. Epirus was directly across the Adriatic from the city of Tarentum. Pyrrhus landed his troops and at Heraclea (hĕr'ă-klĕ'ă) defeated the Roman army. The war elephants used by the Greeks were a great surprise to the Romans. Although Pyrrhus won the battle he lost so many men that he is reported to have said, "Another such victory and my army will be defeated." He again defeated the Romans, but signed a truce with them which proved advantageous to Rome, and then crossed over to the island of Sicily.

Pyrrhus in Sicily. The people on this island—mostly Greek colonies and cities, as we have learned—were now at war with Carthage. They too had called on Pyrrhus for aid, and this was the main reason for stopping his campaign in Italy. For a while he was successful against Carthage, but

his rule in Sicily became oppressive and the people tired of him. A few years later he was defeated by the Carthaginian forces, and with the Greeks still dissatisfied and threatening to overthrow his authority he set sail for Epirus. As Pyrrhus looked back from his ship he is said to have exclaimed: "Sicily! How fair a wrestling ring, my friends, are we leaving to Rome and Carthage!" His words were prophetic, as we shall now see. Tarentum had surrendered to the Romans after the departure of Pyrrhus for Sicily, and all of Italy from Etruria southward paid allegiance to the one-time little trading post on the Tiber.

Rome and Carthage. The two great rivals for the supremacy of the western Mediterranean world—Rome and Carthage—represented the Indo-European peoples in Italy and the Semitic peoples in Africa. The old struggle which had begun in the Fertile Crescent was to be renewed on a larger scale in this new arena.

Carthage—Its Government. Carthage was located a little to the southeast of the present city of Tunis, in northern Africa. Very little has come down to us of its early history, though many myths were built around the story of its founding. We do know, however, that it was a Phœnician settlement established about 800 B.C. Its early government was probably in the hands of kings, but these kings were elective and not hereditary monarchs. They were appointed by a legislative branch, called for convenience' sake a senate. Below the kings there were generals. There was nothing to hinder a king from being a general. The senate was composed of two groups, the smaller group wielding vast power and the larger group probably having little to say. Aristotle tells us that the officers of the government were not paid for their services. This being the case, it was possible only for men of wealth to devote their time to the service of the state. Carthage became a government controlled by a few wealthy individuals, who dictated the domestic and foreign policy of their country as they alone willed. It was the most pronounced plutocracy of the ancient world.

Free Trade. As Carthage grew in power, and became the most influential commercial center of the times, it is interesting to note her policy of taxation. According to Polybius

(Pô-lib'î-ŭs) Carthage made a treaty with Rome, one of the provisions of which reads: "Merchants selling goods in Sardinia and Africa shall pay no customs, but only the usual fees to the scribe and crier." This was modern free trade or tariff for revenue only, such as we have already seen practiced in early Babylonia. This also indicates that Carthage controlled the island of Sardinia.

Protective Tariff. Somewhat later, however, Carthage began a protective tariff policy. In her treaties with Etruria she named certain articles that could or could not be imported. Hannibal levied a tax on goods imported into Carthage both by land and by sea. The taxes were so high that they paid all the expenses of the government, so that native Carthaginians were no longer taxed directly for the support of the state. This favored the wealthy, who would have had to pay most of the taxes; but it worked a hardship on the lower classes, who had to pay high prices for the goods they consumed, and much smuggling went on. Later, Carthage destroyed foreign vessels carrying cargoes that hurt the trade of her own merchants.

Territory and Wealth of Carthage. At the time of Pyrrhus, Carthage controlled much of the territory in northern Africa. She forced her subjects to pay tribute and carried many of them into slavery. The Ethiopian tribes to the south were specially used for this purpose. Spain, Corsica, Sicily (with the exception of Syracuse), and Sardinia were a part of her empire. The rich mines of Spain were worked by Carthage and were the source of much income. Individuals also controlled some of these mines. The Barca family, of which Hannibal was a member, derived its wealth from this source. Hannibal's influence and position in Carthage and his subsequent influence upon Roman history were at least partly due to this fact.

This gives us some idea of the contending forces that were now to start the first of the three conflicts known as the Punic Wars. The two countries stood facing one another, each fearing for its own prestige. Both desired to gain supreme power in the Mediterranean; both had started an imperialistic policy; each knew that the destruction of the other was necessary for the realization of its ambitions.

Excuse for the War. In 265 B.C. Hiero, King of Syracuse, united with the Carthaginians for the purpose of suppressing piracy in the Mediterranean. These pirates had formerly been mercenary troops and had hired out to Syracuse to fight Carthage. When they were disbanded they did not return to Italy, but captured the city of Messina (mě-sě'na). They called themselves the "Sons of Mars" (Mamertines). They captured several other towns, and made a business of preying on foreign commerce. When Carthage joined Syracuse to suppress them, the Mamertines appealed to Rome for aid. The Romans declared war, and this challenge was willingly accepted by the Carthaginians.

First Punic War, 264-241 B.C. The long, destructive wars between these rivals began with only this flimsy excuse. For twenty-three years Rome and Carthage fought, with victory alternating from one to the other. Toward the end of the war both sides were exhausted, their treasuries empty, their subjects living in poverty and misery. Those who still survived the wars either were maimed or had not yet returned. Babies whom mothers had held in their arms twenty years before had grown to manhood; and brave, heartsick women saw them leave to join their fathers somewhere in the Mediterranean world—or in the Great Beyond.

Carthage Sues for Peace. This was the first Punic War. At last Rome won a decisive naval engagement, and Carthage sued for peace. By the terms of the treaty Carthage gave up all claim to Sicily. She was forced to surrender all Roman prisoners of war, and to pay a heavy indemnity.

The Provincial System. Sicily was made a province of Rome. It was governed by a proconsul or governor. As the provincial system of Rome was based upon this, and as Sicily was the first of many Roman provinces, it is well to notice the political structure of the system. The proconsul was to collect tribute money from the inhabitants, which was paid to the Roman government. Unscrupulous governors often raised twice the amount of money prescribed by the government. The surplus was their own, and came to be looked upon as legitimate plunder. The tax gatherers (publicans) became a hated class in the provinces. This system was one of the weak policies of the Republic and, as we have



From the motion picture "Ben Hur"

ROMAN WAR VESSELS

At the outbreak of the first Punic War the Carthaginian navy was far superior to that of Rome. Time after time the Romans were defeated in the naval engagements. Using a wrecked Carthaginian vessel as a model, it is said the Romans built large "five deckers" furnished with bridges to drop on the decks of enemy ships. This enabled the Roman soldiers to conduct a sea-fight in much the same way as a land battle, and in this method they had no equals. In 242 B.C. patriotic Romans subscribed enough money to construct a large fleet. This fleet in a great naval engagement destroyed the Carthaginian navy, and Carthage was forced to sue for peace.

seen, in direct opposition to the lenient policy she had used in the conquest of her Italian subjects. It remained for Julius Caesar to correct the provincial system and to establish citizenship in the Roman provinces.

Preparation for New Struggle. Between the first and second Punic Wars both Rome and Carthage prepared for a new struggle. Rome repulsed an attack by the Gauls and extended her boundaries to the Alps. Sicily and Sardinia were taken from Carthage and formed into Roman provinces. In Carthage Hamilcar Barca, it is said, took his nine-year-

old son, Hannibal, to the temple and there had him swear eternal hatred to Rome.

Second Punic War, 218-201 B.C. Hannibal, at the age of twenty-six, was chosen leader of the Carthaginian army. He immediately took possession of the lands in Spain that had not fallen before his father's army. Saguntum (sä-gōon'-tum), on the eastern coast, was the only city in the southern part of the peninsula that was not conquered, and it formed an alliance with Rome. Hannibal, in defiance of the Roman Senate, laid siege to the town and took it. Rome immediately demanded of Carthage that she give up the city and deliver Hannibal a prisoner to her ambassadors.

Hannibal in Italy. Hannibal—around whom the chief events of this war center—crossed the Alps with an army estimated at one hundred thousand men, vast military equipment, and about forty war elephants. For the next eleven years Hannibal crushed one Roman army after another and reached the very gates of Rome. His brother Hasdrubal attempted to bring him reënforcements, which were sadly needed. At Metaurus (Mê-tô'rus) the Romans defeated the new invaders before they could join forces with Hannibal, who now retreated to Bruttium. With his army much reduced, he was unable to make a strong attack against Rome.

Publius Scipio. Publius Scipio now advocated the policy of carrying the war into Africa. This he said would necessitate the recall of the Carthaginian troops in Italy for the defense of their own country. Scipio was given the command of the Roman army in Africa. Carthage recalled Hannibal, and in 202 B.C. his army was defeated at Zama. It was the first defeat for the Carthaginian general, and Scipio received the honored title of Scipio Africanus. Carthage now sued for peace the second time.

Terms of Peace Treaty. The terms inflicted upon the Carthaginians were severe. She was forced to give up Spain, to surrender her entire navy with the exception of ten ships, and again to pay a huge war indemnity. Hannibal was driven into exile, and later, hounded by the Roman government, committed suicide.

Break-up of Alexander's Empire. As for Rome, the doors of the temple of Janus still remained open. Macedonia

had aided Hannibal in the second Punic War, and was now stirring up trouble among the Greek cities which belonged to Rome. Roman legions defeated the Macedonians and made a Roman province of their entire country. Thus a part of the great empire of Alexander fell to the Romans. At the same time Asia Minor, which included all the countries of the Fertile Crescent, was subjugated and thereafter paid allegiance to Rome. Later it, too, was placed under the provincial system. Egypt under the Ptolemies was the only one of Alexander's conquests that remained free from Roman rule, and it was soon to become a part of the Roman dominions.

Third Punic War, 149 B.C. One of the terms imposed upon Carthage at the end of the second Punic War was that she should not attack any Roman colonies. The Numidians, allied with Rome, took advantage of this and attacked Carthage. Carthage appealed to Rome, and the Roman ambassadors in deciding the case gave every decision to the Numidians. Carthage had been making a brave effort to retrieve her fortunes and get on her feet.

Cato. Cato, one of the Roman ambassadors, filled with an intense hatred for the Carthaginians, noted their prosperity. He returned to Rome possessed by the idea that Carthage should be destroyed. All his speeches ended with the phrase *Carthago delenda est* (Carthage must be destroyed).

Excuse for Third Carthaginian War. The Numidians again attacked Carthage. This time she did not appeal to Rome, thinking it was of little use after her first experience. The Carthaginian army was defeated and enslaved by the Numidians. The Carthaginians, realizing that they had broken the terms of the peace treaty, sent to Rome and offered to give up three hundred of their children as hostages. After this Rome landed an army before their city, and demanded that they give up all arms and ammunition within the city. This, too, was complied with. Then the Romans read the final decree of their Senate—old Cato had won; "Carthage should be destroyed."

Destruction of Carthage, 146 B.C. The Carthaginians now decided to defend their city. For four years they withstood a Roman siege, at the end of which time only one-fourteenth of the inhabitants were left. These surrendered,

and the city was burned to the ground. For three weeks the conflagration lasted. All the buildings that remained were leveled to the ground, and the site of Carthage was turned over by the plow. The African territory was made a Roman province.



From the motion picture "Ben Hur"

GALLEY SLAVES

Men convicted of crime and prisoners of war were enslaved in the galleys, and compelled to take their turn at the oars at regular intervals.

Condition of Rome after 146 B.C. Rome was now supreme, but at an awful cost. The reconstruction period bound to follow all wars had now to be faced. The economic and social condition of the country was in a sad state. Poverty and misery reigned among the masses, while political corruption went on within the government. A champion of the people was needed; and just as Scipio Africanus rose in the days of Hannibal to check the Carthaginian menace, so his grandson Tiberius Gracchus (grāk'us) now came forward to meet a greater danger.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Why did the early Latins settle along the Tiber?
2. What was the value of the Circensian games to the Romans?
3. Why was the Roman family such a power in early Roman society? What does healthy family life mean in America today?
4. What social advantage had the Roman system of ancestor worship?
5. What was the difference in purpose between the Roman guilds and modern trade unions?
6. What powers has the President of the United States in time of war? Compare these powers with those of the Roman dictator.
7. Discuss the social position of women in the ancient world up to this point in Roman history.
8. What was the weak point in the Carthaginian government?
9. Show how Rome and Carthage were fighting for Imperialism.
10. Why did not Rome and Carthage adopt a policy of cooperation instead of destruction?
11. Chapter XXXVII of Guerber's *Story of Our Civilization* has a good description of Roman roads, bridges, sewers, and aqueducts, and of Roman war. Show by an oral report, written composition, picture, or cartoon the same things in America today.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Report on the following stories of Ancient Rome. They are all to be found in Davis' *Readings in Ancient History* (Rome).

- a. How Horatius Held the Bridge
- b. How the Plebeians Won the Consulship
- c. The Story of Cincinnatus
- d. The Strike of the Flute Players
- e. The Roman Constitution
- f. How Archimedes Made Engines to Resist Marcellus
- g. The Conduct and Treatment of Slaves
- h. Sparticus and the Slave Revolt

Compare *a* with the stand of Leonidas at Thermopylæ.

Compare *e* with the government of Athens under Pericles.

II. From Haaren and Poland's *Famous Men of Rome* report on the lives of some of the following men:

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|----------------|--------------------|
| 1. Cincinnatus | 3. Appius Claudius |
| 2. Camillus | 4. Regulus |

- | | |
|---------------------|-----------|
| 5. Scipio Africanus | 8. Marius |
| 6. Cato the Censor | 9. Sulla |
| 7. The Gracchi | |

III. In Tappan's *Story of the Roman People* read Chapter VI, The Romans of the Early Republic and Their Ways. Compare the Roman life of that period with early Greek life, as told in Chapter III of Tappan's *Story of the Greek People*.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

VAN LOON	<i>Story of Mankind</i> (Rome and Carthage and the Rise of Rome)	Macmillan
CHURCH	<i>Story of Carthage</i>	Putnam
JOHNSON	<i>Private Life of the Romans</i>	Scott
GAYLEY	<i>Classic Myths</i>	Ginn

HISTORICAL NOVEL

HENTY	<i>The Young Carthaginian</i> (Story of the Second Punic War)	Scribner
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CHAPTER VIII

THE ROMAN REPUBLIC

Times of the Gracchi. During her long wars Rome took thousands and thousands of prisoners. These were sold in the slave markets to the highest bidders. Many of these victims were from the best families of the conquered territories. In time they became so cheap that old Cato advised his countrymen that "slaves should always be working or sleeping." In fact, they became such a drug on the market that it was cheaper to work them to the point of exhaustion and ill health and then discard them and buy others.

Slave Revolts in Sicily. Conditions became so bad in Sicily that the slaves revolted, and defeated four Roman armies sent against them. After three years they were subdued. The picture of the elegant mansions of the slave holders, with hundreds of one-room huts surrounding the large farms filled with cultured men and women, honest artisans, and children, torn and separated from their families and driven

like beasts before the lash, makes a terrible setting for these times.

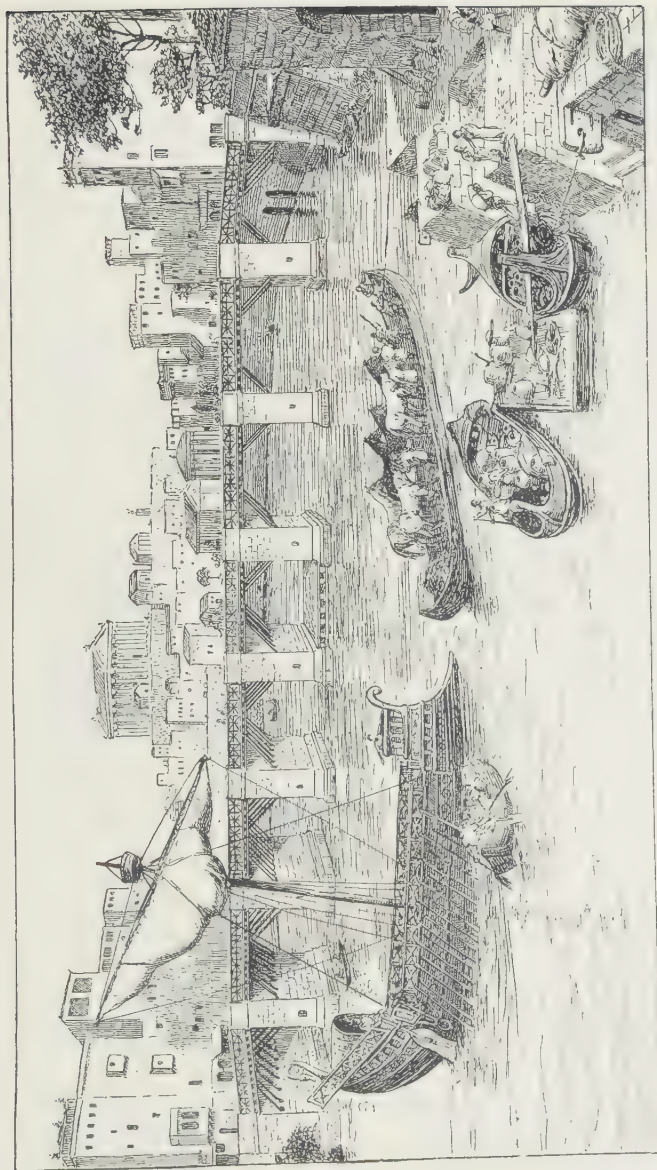
Cheap Products. After enslaving the inhabitants of distant lands, their farms were bought up by wealthy Romans. These farms were worked by the slaves, and soon cheap grains and other food products were being imported into Rome.

The Provinces. A group of Roman bankers—crafty profiteers—sensed a new source of income from the Provinces. We have seen how the governorships of these territories were offered to the highest bidders. The tax gatherers, or publicans, in the same way bid for the districts into which the governors had divided their territories. Under this system all officials concerned were grasping as much as possible, and the provincials had little money or products left for their own necessities.

In Rome, however, financial matters were different. This city became the financial center of the world. Moneys and grain from all lands, the tribute from other countries, poured into the capital. The bankers would borrow this money at a low rate of interest and loan it to the people in the Provinces for twenty and even thirty per cent.

Licinian Laws, 367 B.C. Under the provisions of the Licinian Laws the plebeians gained the right to elect one of the two consuls from their own order. Another clause provided that no citizen should hold more than 300 acres of public land. During the wars this last law had become a dead letter, and much of the land in Rome and Italy was sold to wealthy persons who worked it with slave labor. Speculation now became rife. Men would borrow money from the bankers, buy land, and then sell it for the profit they could get out of it.

Corrupt Government. The reason that laws already on the statute books could so easily be set aside, was the corruptness of the government. Many times while Rome was in the midst of her military conquests she was sorely pressed for money. The big business interests then came to the aid of the government with voluntary subscriptions and loans. For these favors many concessions were given to this moneyed class. Bribery was often resorted to in getting favorable laws



THE TIBER IN THE TIME OF CÆSAR

The Tiber was at that time a busy highway of commerce. The buildings along the river were tenement houses. They were built around inner courtyards and had few windows on the side towards the river. The buildings in the background are on the Capitoline hill.

passed for the capitalists. In fact, the Roman Senate itself was gradually becoming corrupt.

The Returned Soldiers. These were the conditions that the disbanded Roman soldiers faced, after coming home from distant lands where they had fought for the glory of their country. Their farms had been neglected for years—if, indeed, they had been fortunate enough to retain them—and their families were in dire straits. They went to work, however, and tried to eke out a living. Fate was against them. They took their wheat, corn, and cattle to the markets only to find that the large landholders, raising the same products with slave labor, could easily undersell them. The peasant was unable to make enough to pay his taxes. There was only one thing to do, and that was to sell his small farm to some wealthy person, at a great sacrifice, after which he usually packed up what few belongings he had left and went to the large cities to seek work. Here he found thousands of other men, wandering about the streets or loitering around public places, who had become victims of the same circumstances.

The Landless Class. When cities are filled with jobless men, who are dissatisfied with unjust conditions and see no hope for the future, there is bound to be trouble ahead unless conditions change. True, there were probably many worthless characters among these mobs—criminals who took advantage of their conditions, and others who were better satisfied without work. On the whole, however, this was not the case, and many criminals were made by the conditions. It is said that most of the land in the Roman state at this time was in the hands of about 2000 persons.

Gladiatorial Combats. In order to pacify these unemployed citizens and gain their votes, wealthy politicians in the large cities would feed them from their store houses. And those in the government, in order to retain their offices, did the same. Another pacifier was the public entertainments. About 300 B.C. there had been introduced into Rome from Etruria a sport which became known as the gladiatorial combat. Slaves were pitted against each other to fight to the death, while the spectators looked on. Later these gladiators were forced to fight, often single handed, with wild beasts that had been penned up and almost starved. Vast

structures known as amphitheaters were built in all the large cities. In the center was a large arena, used by actors, or gladiators, or for chariot races. Surrounding the arena were long rows of seats, rising one above the other in tiers. Our modern athletic stadiums and bowls resemble the amphitheaters very much in form. The largest of these Roman amphitheaters was known as the Colosseum. It covered six acres of ground, its walls were 150 feet high, and it seated 45,000 persons. In these ways the populace was fed and amused by politicians in order to gain its votes.



From the painting by Gérôme

A GLADIATORIAL COMBAT

The front seats in the amphitheaters were reserved for the Emperor, the chief Roman officials, and the Vestal Virgins. Note the Vestals in their white robes.

The Better Element in Roman Society. There were many people in Rome—the wealthy, influential, and educated as well as the large middle class—who cried out against all these things. One of the best known of these families was that of the Gracchi. “I am called the daughter of Scipio [Africanus]. I wish to be known as the mother of the Gracchi.” These were the words of Cornelia, the mother of

Tiberius and Caius Gracchus. At this point we may well turn aside from political and economic affairs to devote some space to a consideration of Roman education during the late Republican era.

Early Education. The schooling of Roman boys and girls began in the home, and continued until the children were seven years old. The mother was the teacher until this age was reached. She taught them to speak their Latin language correctly, and authorities state that the finest grammar and the most highly polished Latin was used by the noble women in the best homes of Rome. Stress was laid, however, on the moral instruction—reverence for the gods, obedience, honesty, and self-reliance. They must have been inspiring hours that the two little Gracchi boys spent at the feet of their mother, as she gave them the rudiments of reading and writing, and then stressed honesty and justice and other social qualities. Their grandfather was probably named as an example, for Scipio Africanus had been known for his upright manhood and fair-play policy. Cornelia probably pictured the conditions of the times, and told them how the Roman world was crying for men of the right sort.



A ROMAN SCHOOL

The Grammar Schools. When they left home to attend the outside schools the home environment of these little fellows was a decided advantage, just as it is today. Their new teacher was called *grammaticus*—hence the name grammar school. He taught them

geography, arithmetic, rhetoric, and most important of all, the "Twelve Tables." They recited these from memory with the other boys in the class. Besides these subjects they had to learn the *Odyssey*, which had been translated into Latin by

a Greek slave a century before. The Greek language and elocution were also taught. The works of the Latin poets Horace and Virgil, and of the comedy writer Terence, had not made their appearance in the school curriculum at the time of the Gracchi.

Greek Influences on Roman Architecture. We can see by the educational system that Greek influence was still being felt in Rome, just as it had influenced Roman life in the earlier period. This was also seen in the architecture and dress of the times. The small, one-room homes, with a hole in the roof for a chimney to let out the smoke and with no windows or other conveniences, soon gave way to large corridors, with dining rooms, sitting rooms, and courts copied from the Greek homes. Many of the well-to-do Roman families had their houses supplied with running water. These homes also had tile pipes running through the different rooms, through which heat passed, supplied from a furnace.

Tiberius Gracchus in Spain. It was as a young man that Tiberius Gracchus left this home, school, and political environment of Rome, and went with the Roman legions to fight in the last Carthaginian war, and in the conquest of Spain. It is said that as he passed through Etruria the sight of the landless, homeless peasants, many of them ex-soldiers, filled him with a passion to help them retrieve their lost fortunes.

Tiberius Elected Tribune, 134-133 B.C. Tiberius came back from the wars and took up the cause of the people against the Senate. His eloquence, sincerity, and influence won him a place in the hearts of the people. "You are, as Romans, called 'lords of the earth,' without possessing a single clod to call your own. The poor have fought to maintain the luxury of the rich." With this sentiment the poor rallied around him and he was elected tribune in 134 B.C.

The Agrarian Law. One of his first acts was to formulate a land law, which was known as the Agrarian Law from the Latin word *ager* meaning land. This was a revision of the old Licinian Law to some extent. It provided that each holder of public lands was to give up all that he was holding illegally in excess of 300 acres. This excess land was then to be divided into eight-acre lots and given to poor applicants. To keep the land in the hands of the people,

they and their descendants were forbidden to sell it. Those who received it were charged a small amount for rent. A permanent board was appointed to supervise the distribution of the land and to maintain the law. The Senate rose in all its might to oppose this law, and another tribune was put up to forbid a vote. Tiberius put to the people the question of whether he or the Senate's tribune should be deposed. The tribes again supported Tiberius, he was retained in office, and the bill became a law.

Death of Tiberius. As his term of office neared its close, Tiberius stood for reelection. The Senate declared his candidacy illegal. Many of the farmers were busy at election time, and either from this or from indifference, only a few of the tribes appeared to support Tiberius. The Senate with its hirelings charged the crowd, killed many of them, and assassinated Tiberius—military hero, champion of the poor, and martyr to their cause.

Influence of Tiberius. Tiberius was dead, but his influence lived. The Senate and the corrupt politicians could not forget that this man had risen and gained a strong following. They were more careful in the future. On the other hand, the people realized their strength and were now ready to fight for their rights.

It was a difficult position that the land board held. After the death of Tiberius the wealthy fought the project, but not before many people had been restored to the land.

Weakness of the Agrarian Laws. There were two difficulties that had apparently been overlooked in framing the land laws: first, that Rome received much grain as tribute; and second, that the agricultural products of foreign countries, produced by slave labor, could be sold in Rome very cheaply. Under these conditions the Roman farmers on their new lands could not compete with the foreign food products. A tariff probably would have protected them and saved the situation. But no Roman at this time would vote for a measure that raised the price of his food. Consequently, hard times followed for the farming class.

Caius Gracchus. Some years after the passage of the Agrarian Law the Senate succeeded in abolishing the land board, whereupon the people rose again, this time under Caius,

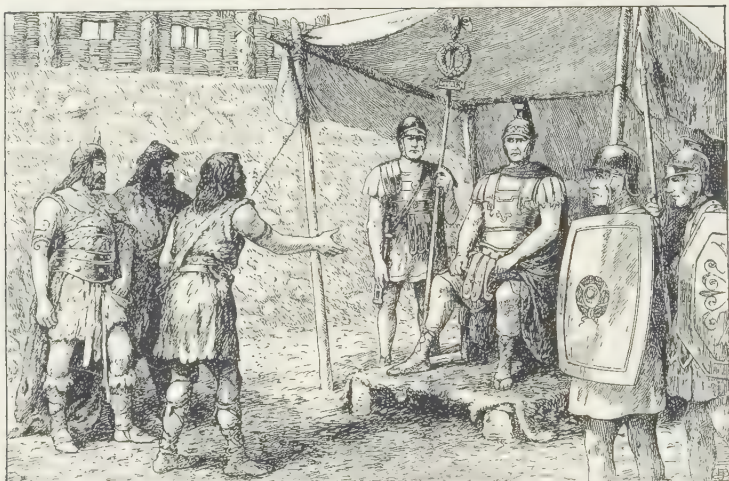
the younger brother of Tiberius. Caius (kā'yus) was elected tribune. He restored the board and instituted other reforms. But he, in turn, soon gave his life for the cause.

Barbarian Tribes Invade Italy. North of the Alps, in western and central Europe, a storm was gathering that was to affect Rome and later civilization more than any one thing save Christianity. This was the unrest of the barbarian tribes in these regions, caused by their increasing numbers and the consequent need of new pasture land. Ten years after the death of Caius Gracchus the Cimbri and the Teutons (Germanic tribes of these barbarians) invaded Italy. Their invasion was not prompted by search of food alone; they, too, were being hard pressed by other tribes northeast of them.

Invade Gaul and Spain. It was reported that there were three hundred thousand fighting men among their number, accompanied by their wives, children, flocks, and household goods loaded on cumbersome carts. These invaders were tall, fair complexioned, light haired, and blue eyed. They made a striking contrast with the small, dark skinned Italic peoples. Their fierce, warlike tactics soon enabled them to gain possession of much of Gaul, as well as to penetrate into Spain. One Roman army after another was sent against them until five armies had been defeated.

Caius Marius. At this critical moment the Assembly chose Caius Marius as consul. The Senate objected strongly. Marius was a reformer, a man of and for the people. The populace felt that he was the man of the hour, and so this son of a day laborer held the consulship for five successive years. He drilled, equipped, and disciplined his army. Rome was still unready; the enemy was upon them; but as in former days, the Romans rose to the occasion.

Teutons and Cimbri Defeated. The invaders had divided their army. The Teutons were to cross the western Alps while the Cimbri crossed the eastern Alps, and then the two were to join in the Po Valley. Marius thwarted their plans. He crossed the Alps and met the Teutons at Aix (āks), in what is now Provence, France. Two hundred thousand Teuton warriors are said to have been slain in this battle, and all their women and children massacred. The Roman consul now re-



MARIUS AND THE CIMBRI

The Cimbri were one of the terrible tribes from the north seeking a southern home. They requested lands in Italy but were refused, whereupon they attacked the Roman forces at intervals over a period of several years until finally defeated by Marius.

crossed the Alps into Italy and defeated the Cimbri (sĭm'bri). Sixty thousand of their number were taken prisoners and sold into slavery. Marius was the national hero; and Rome, secure from barbarian invasion, could face the ensuing political turmoil.

Roman Citizenship in All Italy. Tiberius Gracchus, just before his death, had proposed the extension of Roman citizenship to all Italy. The Senate, not desiring this but wishing to cover their own selfish purposes, accused him of wanting to be king. The matter seemed to have quieted down after his death, but the defeat of the barbarians renewed the idea. The *Italian allies* (those people in Italy who had fought for Rome), while enjoying many of its privileges, were not granted complete Roman citizenship.

The Social War, 91-88 B.C. In 90 B.C. those allies united and demanded Roman citizenship. The aristocratic party (wealthy senators) as well as the popular party (made up of the assembly and plain people) refused for selfish reasons

to grant the request. The allies seceded and set up their own capital, in the Apennines. For three years a large part of Italy was at war with Rome. Sulla, an aristocrat, as the leader of the Roman army became the popular hero of this war by helping to quell the insurrection. It is necessary to say "helping," because Rome was hard pressed, and in order to pacify the insurgents citizenship was granted to all Italian allies who would immediately cease fighting. In this way Italy soon became Roman, with the rights of Roman citizenship exercised by its people.

Marius and Sulla. The stage was now set for new events. The "social war" had produced a military hero, an aristocrat and advocate of special privilege; so the Senate now rallied to the support of Sulla. Marius, on the other hand, had become the idol of the masses, who pinned their faith to him as the leader of the popular party.

Civil War. During the social war Mithridates (mīth'ri-dā'tēz) VI, King of Pontus, had stirred up trouble for Rome by conquering the Roman province of Asia Minor, forming an alliance with many of the Greek city states, and putting to death tens of thousands of Italian subjects in these various countries. Marius and Sulla were rivals for the leadership of the forces sent against Mithridates. Sulla was chosen, and while he was away Marius had many of the aristocratic party put to death. Sulla, on his return soon after the death of Marius, took so terrible a revenge that many thousands of the popular party were slain. Curiously enough, a nephew of Marius—Julius Cæsar—was spared; though Sulla prophesied of him at the time, "He will one day overthrow the aristocracy."

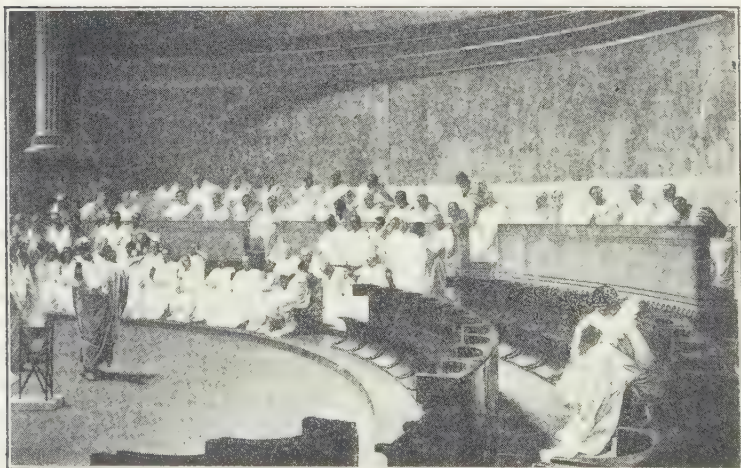
Sulla Made Dictator. At the close of this "civil war" Sulla was made dictator by the Senate. He was given absolute power to make new laws and even to form a new constitution. It was further provided that he could not be removed from office for any reason except misconduct. Dictators, we have seen, according to law could serve only six months. Sulla's task, however, was to unmake laws that had been favorable to the people, and make new ones giving more power to the aristocratic party in the Senate. After three years he resigned, but the people had seen a single man

rule Rome, the first since the overthrow of the Etruscan kings four hundred years earlier. He had paved the way for Cæsar and the overthrow of the Republic.

Prosecution of Verres by Cicero. During the next twenty years Rome was faced with many problems. First, she was forced to quell a revolt of the gladiators. In the second place, she witnessed the prosecution of Verres, governor of Sicily, who had boasted that half the money he extorted from the Sicilians would go to the senators, to halt any investigation of his policy. The prosecution was conducted by a rising young statesman and orator named Cicero, who succeeded in creating such sentiment that Verres was forced to flee.

Pompey. The same years witnessed the growth of piracy in the Mediterranean, and a second insurrection conducted by Mithridates VI. The piracy was suppressed and the army of Mithridates almost annihilated by Gnæus Pompey, to whom had also been given the task of suppressing the revolt of the gladiators.

Conspiracy of Catiline. The fifth outstanding event of this period was the conspiracy of Catiline, a bankrupt noble,



From the painting by Muccari

THE CONSPIRACY OF CATILINE
Cicero delivering an oration in the Senate.

who endeavored to overthrow the Republic and become an all-powerful dictator. He was brought to trial, and his prosecution was conducted by Cicero, now a consul. Catiline escaped from the Senate and was later killed in battle.

(For Questions and Suggestions see end of Chapter IX.)

CHAPTER IX

THE ROMAN EMPIRE

Julius Cæsar. Catiline had failed to gain control of the government, but the next man to attempt it succeeded. Julius Cæsar was born July 12, 100 B.C., and was descended from one of the great patrician families of Rome. At an early age his father died, and his education and care were left to his mother, Aurelia. Cæsar owed much to the influence of his mother, and his love and respect for her never wavered. Tacitus (Tăs'ĩ-tōs), the Roman historian, compares her with Cornelia, mother of the Gracchi.

At the age of seventeen Cæsar married Cornelia, daughter of Cinna, one of the leaders of the democratic party. Later he refused to divorce her, though commanded to do so by Sulla. His property was confiscated, and he was forced to flee for his life.

After he was pardoned Cæsar returned to Rome and continued his education, studying Greek philosophy and rhetoric. In Rome, as in Greece, oratory played an important part in politics, and Cæsar was ambitious to win political honors. So he set sail for the island of Rhodes to study oratory at the university there, for he was intent upon mastering the art.

His Various Offices. Having completed his course in oratory Cæsar returned to Rome and was elected quæstor (treasurer). Later he became an ædile. As ædile he had charge of the public games and other entertainments. To become popular in this position necessitated pleasing the general riff-raff of voters. This required plenty of money, and Cæsar was far from being rich. He borrowed over a million



*From the statue in the National
Museum, Naples*

JULIUS CÆSAR

"In person Cæsar was tall and slight. His features were more refined than was usual in Roman faces; the forehead was wide and high, the nose large and thin, the lips full, the eyes dark gray like an eagle's, the neck extremely thick and sinewy."—J. A. Froude.

dollars, and the exhibitions he gave were the finest Rome had ever witnessed. The object of his ambition was gained. He became popular with the voters. The people now looked to him as the new leader of the old democratic party, which had been almost destroyed by Sulla. He became pontifex maximus (chief priest), and then in addition was made a prætor (judge). He still owed the vast sums he had borrowed during his ædileship. There was only one office in which he might gain enough money to pay these debts, and that was the office of proprætor (governor of a province). He succeeded in being appointed to such a position in Spain. Before leaving he borrowed money from Crassus, the wealthiest man in Rome, to pay the rest of his debts. In a little over a year he had extorted enough money from his province to pay back to Crassus every-

thing he owed and return to Rome free of debt.

The First Triumvirate. Cæsar's next ambition was to be consul, and with that end in view he formed a coalition with the two most influential men of Rome, Pompey and Crassus. Pompey with his military reputation, Crassus with his vast wealth, and Cæsar with his personal influence over

the mob now became the real rulers of Rome—the first triumvirate (three men). Political influence could be secured only by gaining the favor of these three men. Apparently they were playing the game fairly; but each one knew in his heart that the others were trying to get full control. Cæsar bided his time. He asked for an appointment as governor of Cisalpine (sĭs-ăl'-pĭn) and Transalpine Gaul (the land on this side and on the other side of the Alps). It was granted, both Crassus and Pompey considering it a stroke of good fortune to have him out of the way.

Cæsar's Conquests. Cæsar's conquest of Gaul consisted of eight campaigns. He conquered three hundred tribes, one million of whom were killed and another million of whom were forced into slavery. He met not only the Gauls, but other Germanic invaders who were pushing toward the Alps in search of land. The Roman boundary was extended to the Rhine, and for five hundred years the barbarian invasion was checked. Cæsar even crossed the English Channel into Britain. Everywhere he went he left Roman law, customs, and ideas; so that these lands, with the exception of Britain, were soon Romanized. Cæsar then wrote what was really a political pamphlet, describing these Gallic wars. In Rome he was hailed as a conqueror and hero, even



A LEGIONARY SOLDIER

The legionaries were Roman citizens, though often recruited from the provinces and given citizenship the day they enrolled.

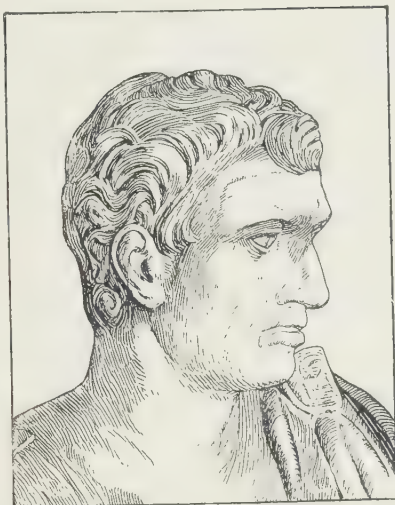
greater than Pompey. "Let the Alps now sink; the gods raised them to shelter Italy from the Barbarians, but they are no longer needed." Thus did Cicero, in an eloquent speech, praise the work of Cæsar.

Cæsar and Pompey. After Cæsar's five-year term had expired he was made governor for five more years in Gaul. Crassus was appointed governor of Syria and Pompey of Spain. Crassus was killed in Syria, and only Pompey and Cæsar remained to contend for supremacy. The Senate, fearing the influence of Cæsar, now enlisted the aid of Pompey. He joined the aristocratic party and was made consul without a colleague. He alone was ruler, as Sulla had been. In Gaul Cæsar received word of the Senate's action. His term as governor was nearly ended, and he had intended coming back to Rome and offering himself as a candidate for consul. Pompey and the Senate refused to support him. According to Roman law, if Cæsar ran for consul he would have to disband his legions and come to Rome in person. The aristocrats, with Pompey's army to back them, considered this a good time to capture and assassinate him. Cæsar sent word to the Senate that he would disband his army if Pompey were forced to do the same. The Senate sent back word that he was to disband his army by a certain time or be declared a public enemy. Pompey, on the other hand, was to keep his army. Most of Cæsar's legions had been left for garrison duty along the northern frontiers. With one legion (3000 men) he decided to accept the Senate's offer of civil war.

Cæsar Crosses the Rubicon, 49 B.C. The laws of Rome forbade a proconsul to cross into Italy with an army. In the north the Rubicon was the boundary set by law. Crossing this river, and knowing full well what it meant, Cæsar is said to have exclaimed, "The die is cast!" As he marched south the country proclaimed and welcomed him.

Defeat and Death of Pompey. When Cæsar reached Rome, Pompey and many of the aristocratic party fled. Everyone looked forward to murder and bloodshed as in the days of Marius and Sulla. Cæsar, however, resorted to no such tactics. He hurried into Spain, crushed all opposition there, and left for Greece to meet Pompey. At Pharsalus

(fär-sā'lus), in Thessaly (49 B.C.), he defeated Pompey's army, and then followed him to Egypt. Pompey was assassinated in Egypt, and here Cæsar won further military glory by quelling a revolt and making Cleopatra, one of the Ptolemys, Queen. He made love to this celebrated beauty for a while and then returned to Rome, where he was named dictator for life (44 B.C.). A new phase of his activities now opens—that of his political, economic, and social reforms.



POMPEY

Powers of Cæsar. Cæsar was practically Emperor of all the Roman Dominions. Although he refused a crown, he assumed all the formalities of royalty.

The public coins were stamped with his image. He took over all the important offices, and their varied powers were vested in him. He dressed in the purple robes that were symbolic of royalty. His statue was erected in the temple, and an inscription placed upon it which read: "The unconquerable God." With absolute power, and worshiped as a deity, the fate of Rome depended upon his actions. He chose to further, and not to destroy, the work of over five centuries.

Reforms of Cæsar in Gaul and Sicily. The first thing that Cæsar endeavored to do was to strengthen the government by removing much of the tyranny that existed in the provinces. In Cisalpine Gaul and in Sicily he was partly successful. Many of the people in those districts were given Roman citizenship. The Senate was increased to nine hundred members, and influential Gauls were admitted to this

After his defeat by Cæsar, Pompey sought the protection of Ptolemy, Cleopatra's brother. The King, however, thought it safer to welcome the victor, Cæsar. Ptolemy himself lost his life soon after this.

body. He reduced the taxes in the provinces and allowed the people to decide how the government revenue was to be raised.

Reforms in Italy. In Italy Cæsar divided the public lands as the Gracchi had done. Every slave holder was forced to employ one free man for every two slaves. He founded colonies, which were settled by the landless people of Italy. As we have noted, he corrected the calendar. He proposed the erection of fine public buildings, libraries, public baths, and roads. But in the midst of his work he was assassinated.

Death of Cæsar, 44 B.C. Cæsar was in the Senate Chamber, at the Ides of March meeting, when he was approached by a score of senators, apparently on a friendly mission. As they came near they drew their daggers and attacked him. He defended himself until he recognized his friend Brutus. This was too much for him and he gave up the fight. He fell at the foot of Pompey's statue, bleeding from many wounds. This was in 44 B.C. The death of Cæsar meant the renewal of the old internal disorders. His strong hand gone, others now fought for control of the Empire.



From the painting by Gérôme

THE DEATH OF CÆSAR

Bleeding from his many wounds, he fell at the foot of Pompey's statue.

Second Triumvirate. Cæsar's secretary, Mark Antony (ăn'tō-nī), his grand nephew, Gaius Octa'vius, and one of his former lieutenants, Marcus Lepidus, all tried to gain control of the government. Cæsar had made Octavius his heir and the Senate approved of him. Civil war followed. Later the three men got together and formed the second triumvirate. The Roman world was divided. Octavius was to govern the west, Antony, the east, and Lepidus, Africa. Proscription and murder followed, and among those killed was the patriot Cicero.

Battle of Philippi, 42 B.C. Brutus and other friends of the Republic, men who did not desire a kingdom or the rule of an absolute monarch, assembled their forces in Greece. The armies of the triumvirs were victorious at Philippi, in Greece. Lepidus was soon expelled from the triumvirate, and Octavius and Antony were left to fight it out for supremacy.

Antony and Cleopatra. Antony went to Egypt, to settle affairs in that country and in other Roman provinces. He met Cleopatra, the Egyptian queen, and fell in love with her. Rumors reached Rome that he intended to marry Cleopatra and make Alexandria the capital of the Roman Empire. Antony's successor to the throne was to be the son of Cæsar and Cleopatra.

Battle of Actium, 31 B.C. Octavius, taking advantage of the situation in Egypt and fearing these reports, hurried an army into that country and defeated the navies of Antony and Cleopatra at Actium. Antony and Cleopatra committed suicide, and Octavius was declared Imperator (im-pê-ră'tōr) (commander of the armies) by the Roman Senate.

Octavius (Augustus). Rome was now a monarchy in fact but a republic in form. The Senate still nominated consuls and other officials, but they were the names suggested by Octavius. The Senate gave him the name of Augustus, an honorary title that previously had been sacred to the gods. They named the eighth month August in his honor, just as they had named the seventh month July in honor of Julius Cæsar.

Legates. The government of the provinces, with few exceptions, was placed in the hands of legates. The legates

were paid officials, who were responsible to Augustus (Octavius) and not to the Senate. This resulted in a better government, in that it removed much of the graft that former governors had received. But conditions even yet were far from ideal.

Peace Under Augustus. The German tribes to the north defeated several Roman legions under Varrus, during the reign of Augustus; but aside from this, peace was established for the first time in many centuries throughout the Roman world. In the next two centuries architecture, literature, and science flourished. This was the great age of Roman history.



THE APPIAN WAY

This road was named after the censor Appius Claudius who began its construction. It extended from Rome to Brundisium, in southeastern Italy, the embarkation port for Greece. Near Rome it was a pleasure drive as well as a military highway and lay between rows of tombs of Emperors and patricians.

Roman Roads. The Roman roads became famous. They were begun as soon as Rome entered her era of conquest, back in the days of the Roman Republic. The Appian Way

was constructed in 312 B.C., and like all other Roman roads was used for communication with conquered territories. The construction of these highways was accomplished by engineers. The roads were wide and smooth. Concrete was often used as filling, and over this were placed blocks of lava or hard stone. These stones were laid with the greatest care. They were placed close together, and the spaces filled so that water could not enter the crevices. The smooth surface made riding very comfortable. Along the sides of the roads were gutters, to carry off the dirt and water. There were paths along the side for pedestrians—as well as resting places. Milestones telling the distance from one place to another were provided; and along all the highways were watering troughs and hotels. Thus the Roman world was linked together. The most remote provinces of the Empire had their roads leading to Rome. From this comes the expression: "All roads lead to Rome."



THE PANTHEON

The temple of all the Roman gods. The portico is built in Corinthian style, and in the rear is the great dome, with its Roman architecture.

Roman Architecture. The architecture of Rome was more severe than the Greek architecture, but the Roman arch and column became distinctive. They help to make up a present

type of architecture known as Romanesque. Augustus erected many temples and public buildings of marble. The large public baths of the time were famous for their beauty and conveniences. The great arched bridges of the Roman engineers were better and stronger than any that had ever before been erected. Under Hadrian (hā'drī-ăn), who ruled from 117-138 A.D., the great Pantheon (păn'thê-ôn) was built. The dome of this building was 140 feet from the ground, with a diameter equal in extent. This dome was built of concrete, the material used in building the Roman roads. It is only recently that people have once more learned to use this mixture.

Economic Conditions. The greatest scientists and literary men of the Roman Empire flourished in the first two centuries of the Christian era. Economic conditions throughout the domains were favorable. Manufactured articles of distant provinces were finding their way into all the cities of the Empire. Artisans in Syria, Babylon, Egypt, Greece, and along the Rhine-Danube frontier were kept busy as trade and commerce prospered.

Times of Augustus. Augustus died in 14 A.D., and like all Roman Emperors he was deified. This, of course, was an outgrowth of the old ancestor worship of Rome. At this time Roman morals were not of the best. Augustus had yielded to the popular demand for gladiatorial combats, and during his reign they became more numerous and cruel. Human blood was spilled like water in the amphitheaters throughout the Roman Empire. No one seemed to object to anything of an immoral character during these days of the splendor of Rome,—at least, no one with any influence.

Jesus of Nazareth. At the death of Augustus a young man eighteen years old was working in his father's carpenter shop, in the town of Nazareth, located in the distant province of Syria. His voice was soon to be heard, low at first but gathering volume and momentum as his followers spread his influence from province to province. This young man was Jesus of Nazareth, whose teachings were to form the basis of the Christian religion.

Destruction of Jerusalem, 79 A.D. Under the Emperors Vespasian (vēs-pā'zhī-ăn) and Titus Jerusalem was destroyed

by the Roman armies, and its inhabitants were again taken into captivity. The cause for this was an insurrection among the Jews, in which they drove out the Roman officers.

Pompeii and Herculaneum. One of the great disasters of Titus' reign was the destruction of the towns of Herculaneum (hûr'-kû-lâ'nê-ŭm) and Pompeii (pŏm-pā'yē) by the eruption of Mount Vesuvius. Excavations of Pompeii show the streets, stores, and other buildings of the city just as they were at that time. Many inscriptions still posted on the walls of buildings give us an idea of those times: "The dyers request the election of Proculus as ædile." "Twenty pairs of gladiators, provided by Quintus Monnius Rufus, are to fight at No'la, May 1, 2, and 3, and there will be a hunt." These inscriptions inform us that the guilds had become a political factor in Rome; and that gladiators were taken over the country by their masters, like a modern circus.

Roman Frontiers and Boundaries. During the reign of Hadrian the Empire was extended to the Euphrates in the East, and as far north as the Rhine and Danube rivers in Europe, as well as to the island of Britain. This monarch built vast ramparts and walls along the Rhine and Danube. The Roman legions posted along this frontier held in check the restless barbarians, who were striving always to break through. In Britain a wall was erected from the Solway to the Tyne to check the advance of the warlike Picts in the north. Parts of this wall are still standing.

Weakening of the Empire. The third, fourth, and fifth centuries mark the decline and fall of the Roman Empire. During these years the office of Emperor became the prize for which the strong military chieftains fought, backed always by their legions. The story is one of accession to the throne, assassination of its occupant, and the installation of another, who in turn met the same fate. Under this system the government was weakened. Extortion became rife in the provinces once more, with the provincials dissatisfied. Wars weakened the legions, which had to be filled with foreign troops. More slaves were thrown on the markets, and labor again became cheap. Money grew scarce and the land came again into the hands of the wealthy. The moneyed class no longer

reared large families, the poorer classes could not afford them, and this thinned the ranks of the Roman population.



MODERN STREET SCENE IN DAMASCUS
The ruins testify to the one-time Roman occupation.

The Empire under Diocletian. In order to control the disturbing elements within the Empire, Diocletian (dī'ō-klē'-shān) (284-305) shared the government of his realm with a colleague, but without dividing the Empire. Diocletian made Nicomedia in Asia Minor his capital; while his associate, Maximian, located at Milan (mī'lān) in Italy. Each Augustus was to have an assistant, called a Caesar, who was also to be his heir. The two assistants, Gale'rius and Constantinus (kōn'stān-tī'nus), were also to have separate courts in more distant parts of the Empire. In this way Diocletian hoped to control the disturbing elements and put a stop to the assassination of rulers. He also abolished all pretense of a republic, and ruled like any despot of the ancient world.





Constantine the Great. Diocletian and Maximian abdicated and their associates became Augusti. Very shortly after this Constantine died in Britain, and his legions, disregarding the law of succession, chose Constantine as Emperor. Constantine was forced to fight for almost twenty years before he could assume his place as Emperor. In 312 A.D. Constantine won a great victory over his rivals. Before the battle he adopted Christianity, and his standards bore the emblem of the cross with the inscription: *In hoc signo vinces* (In this sign conquer). For nearly three centuries the Christians had been pacifists, following the teachings of Christ—"peace on earth." Because of this attitude, and other views which they held, they had been persecuted in Rome and put to death by the thousands. From now on they became a militant organization. The next year Christianity was adopted by Constantine as the Court religion; but the privilege of worshiping as one pleased—any god or creed—was not taken from the Roman people.

Constantinople. In Rome they were much displeased over Constantine's action in adopting Christianity, and in 330 A.D. he left Rome and selected Byzantium (bǐ-zǎn'-shǐ-ŭm) on the Bos'porus as his capital. He called it Constantinople.

Goths Invade Eastern Empire. About a half century later, the Visigoths (viz'ĭ-gōthz) (West Goths) pushed across the frontiers and swarmed into Greece. They had come from the lower Danube, where their own land was being overrun by a fierce race called the Huns. Va'lens, the Emperor of the East, allowed them to settle in Thrace, upon promising to give up their arms and to hand over their children as hostages. The West Goths had hardly settled when their kinsmen, the East Goths, poured into the Roman territory. They too had been driven from their homes by the Huns. The two tribes united and made war on the Eastern Empire. They were subdued by Theodosius (thē'ō-dō'shĭ-ŭs), successor of Valens, whereupon they enlisted in the Roman legions and were given lands in Thrace. They later invaded Greece, but were defeated by a Vandal general, Stilicho. The Roman Empire of the East withstood all attacks until 1453, when it fell before the invasion of the Turks.

Code of Justinian. We cannot leave the Empire of the East, however, before mentioning the great achievement of Justinian (527-565 A.D.). He had all the Roman laws collected, from the time of the Twelve Tables to his own day. One of the greatest lawyers of the Empire codified these laws. They had more influence on later civilization than any other thing contributed by Rome. They did much to influence the social and economic structure of modern Europe.



From the painting by Benjamin Constant

JUSTINIAN AND HIS COUNCIL

Invasion of the Western Empire. In the Western Empire trouble came thick and fast. In 410 A.D. Alaric, chief of the Goths, invaded Rome, sacked it, and carried away the wealth of the city. Alaric had commanded his soldiers to spare all citizens and the Christian churches. In the excitement of plunder, however, the barbarians massacred thousands of people and the streets were filled with blood. Alaric then moved south, plundering Italy as he went.

Fall of Roman Empire in the West, 476 A.D. One after another, as we shall see in a later Chapter, the barbarian tribes ravaged Italy. Rome was too much weakened to hold her own. The Burgundians (bûr-gûn'dî-ănz), the Franks, the Huns, and the Vandals all alike pillaged and burned and destroyed. Finally, in 476, a German chieftain, Odoacer (ô'dô-â'sér), de-

throned the boy Emperor, Romulus Augustus. The Empire of the West had fallen into the hands of a barbarian chieftain.

The next Epoch is that of the fusion of these barbarian peoples with the Roman civilization and with Christianity—a fusion that was to make a better and stronger people, and give us the nations we know today.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Write a composition, make a chart, or draw a picture or cartoon showing: (1) what Early Man gave to Civilization; (2) Egypt; (3) Fertile Crescent; (4) Greece; (5) Rome. Reference: Guerber, *Story of Our Civilization*, or Hall, *Our Ancestors in Europe*.
2. Has the United States any public lands today such as Rome had at the time of Julius Cæsar? Consult any standard American history on this subject and compare the two systems.
3. How did slavery affect free labor in Rome?
4. How did the life of Tiberius Gracchus influence later legislation in Rome?
5. Of what benefit were the Social Wars to the masses?
6. How is the tariff supposed to affect American labor today? Reference: A standard text on Community Civics or Problems of Democracy. How would a tariff have affected Roman labor at the time of the Gracchi?
7. Can you justify Cæsar's Gallic Wars? How were his *Commentaries* to serve his political purposes?
8. In what way was the Roman civilization superior to the Greek? In what respect was it inferior?

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

- I. Choose topics from Davis' *Readings* as follows:
 - a. The agrarian situation in Italy, 133 B.C.
 - b. The murder of Tiberius Gracchus
 - c. How Jugurtha corrupted the degenerate Senate
 - d. How Marius overthrew the Teutons
 - e. Pompey's conquest of the East
 - f. The wealth and habits of Crassus the millionaire
 - g. The early career of Julius Cæsar

What men mentioned above were a credit to Rome? Why? How many of them were a discredit to their country? Why?

II. From Davis' *Readings in Ancient History* (Rome) read the sections on The Collapse of Houses and The Fires in Rome. Compare the tenement house conditions of Rome with those described in Chapter XXXIII. Would the building laws of your own local community permit the building of such homes as were built in Rome? Obtain a list of these laws and substantiate your answer.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

KAUFMAN	<i>Our Young Folks' Plutarch</i>	Lippincott
HAAREN and		American
POLAND	<i>Famous Men of Rome</i>	Book
WESTERMAN	<i>Story of the Ancient Nations</i>	Appleton

HISTORICAL NOVELS

DAVIS	<i>A Friend of Cæsar</i>	Macmillan
DAVIS	<i>The Beauty of the Purple</i> (A romance of imperial Constantinople twelve centuries ago)	Macmillan
WELLS, R. F.	<i>With Cæsar's Legions</i>	Little
BULWER-LYTTON	<i>Last Days of Pompeii</i>	Little
WHITE	<i>The Unwilling Vestal</i>	Dutton

EPOCH THREE

THE AGE OF FUSION

In Epoch Two we learned of the migrations of the early Greeks; how they came in contact with the civilization of the East and improved upon it; how they withstood the Persian invasions and developed the idea of self-government; how the Greek sculptors, artists, painters, scientists, and literary men were the greatest of their age; how Greek culture was planted throughout the known world by means of colonial enterprises and through the conquests of Alexander the Great; how the Greeks in turn were conquered by the Romans, who became the heirs of this earlier civilization. We then followed the rise of the Roman Empire, and saw how it became master of the world; and how, by the fifth century A.D., it had become so corrupt and so weakened that the Empire of the West fell an easy victim to the barbarian invasions.

Long before the fall of Rome, however, Christianity had been gaining headway both within the Empire and among the barbarians. The Christians with their high ideals, the barbarians with their energy and vigor, and the Romans with their culture intermingled and infused new strength into the people of Western Europe. The story of this fusing process will be told in Epoch Three.

CHAPTER X

CHRISTIANITY

Jesus. The birth of Jesus, the founder of Christianity, occurred during the reign of the Emperor Augustus. The place was Beth'lehem, a little village near Jerusalem in the Roman province of Judæa (jōō-dē'a). Jesus' early life was spent in Galilee, where he followed the carpenter's trade.

After thirty years of obscure life, Jesus entered on his public ministry, which lasted only three years. Although he drew many to his following, he opposed the leading men of his people by criticizing their conduct and beliefs. Moreover, many of his followers were disappointed in him because they expected that he would lead them in a rebellion against Rome. His enemies succeeded in bringing him before the Roman procurator of Judæa, Pontius Pilate, and in persuading Pilate to consent to his death.

Rapid Spread of Christianity. Jesus' followers, reinforced by fresh converts of whom Paul of Tarsus was the most important, remained true to the teachings of their leader. Paul, especially, showed great missionary zeal and a wonderful organizing ability. He was a Jew of the "dispersion," that is, of a Jewish family no longer living in Palestine (pā'lēs-tīn). It was the presence of these scattered Jews throughout the civilized world of that day that made the rapid spread of Christianity possible. Only a few of these Jews actually became Christians. But their worship of Jehovah, creator and father of all mankind, prepared the way for the adoption of Christianity when its claims were presented by the early Christians.

Obstacles to be Overcome. The new religion was, however, beset with many difficulties. Within, there were the two parties, conservatives and progressives, one wishing to

limit the new sect to the Jews, the other determined to make it a world religion. From without, its contact with the Roman government grew harder to bear as the Christian sect became more numerous.

Why the Early Christians Were Persecuted. The Christians would not attend the Roman temples or worship the Roman gods. They refused to mingle with the crowds and enjoy the cruel shedding of human blood at the gladiatorial combats. They would not enlist as soldiers; they refused to fight, even to protect their own persons. In short, they were the pacifists of their day. Moreover, they would not send their children to the Roman schools. Because of these facts the Romans considered them dangerous. They did not obey the Roman edicts concerning religion and were therefore poor citizens. "What would become of an Empire," said the rulers, "whose laws were not obeyed?" And so the early Christians in Rome were persecuted.

The Burning of Rome, 64 A.D. The first great persecution took place under Nero, who ruled from 54 to 68 A.D. Nero was one of the cruelest rulers who ever disgraced a throne. To satisfy a whim he is supposed to have set fire to the city of Rome. After six days and nights of conflagration half the city lay in ashes, mostly the slum and tenement house districts, the homes of many poor people. It is said that while the city burned Nero held a gay party, and recited a poem which he had composed called "The Sack of Troy." It was during the reign of Nero that Paul probably suffered martyrdom.

Christians Worship in Secret Places. The Christians, especially in Rome, were now forced to hold their meetings in secret places. They met in the Catacombs (kāt'ā-kōmz)—underground burial places, consisting of long passages with wide recesses for tombs—and other spots affording safety. They used secret signs whenever they met in public, as it meant death for any outside their own order to learn that they were Christians.

Diocletian and Christianity. Three hundred years after the death of Jesus, Diocletian (the one who had divided the Empire) was ruling in Rome. Christianity at this time had permeated all classes and all peoples; but this did not save

the Christians from eight years of frightful persecution under this ruler and his successor. Throughout the entire Roman world the Christians were captured, their books destroyed, their churches burned. They themselves were thrown into the arenas of the amphitheaters. Here, huddled together in fear or calmly praying to their God, they were given over to wild and hungry beasts. But Christianity now spread faster than ever.

Christian Ideals. Christianity carried with it many higher social ideals. The belief in the brotherhood of man and in the dignity of labor tended toward democracy in a world that had been supported by slave labor. Women received more consideration than hitherto, and the cruelty and vice of the age was frowned upon by this new sect. The sanctity of human life was emphasized, which discouraged suicide and infanticide, both of which were common. Charity toward the poor and disabled was practiced as never before.

Galerius. In 311 Galerius, Roman Emperor in the East, stopped the persecutions. He allowed the Christians to rebuild their churches and worship in public unmolested. "Persecution," he said, "does them no good." Two years later Constantine confirmed this toleration by the Edict of Milan. It was only then that people began to see the great inroads that Christianity had made among the people of the Roman world. It had thousands of converts and many churches, with a well defined organization.

Early Church Organization. There was probably very little formality among the first Christian gatherings. Small groups of men, women, and children, all believing in the teachings of Jesus, met and discussed his doctrines. They had little need for government at this time. The services were conducted, no doubt, by the most prominent members within their assemblage, and informal discussions by the men and women were part of the proceedings. Members who had been close to Jesus, such as his disciples, often addressed the meetings.

Deacons. The sick, disabled, and poor had to be cared for and visited. The members were asked to donate food and clothing, and these were given to the needy. The first church officials of whom we hear anything definite are

the people who took charge of this welfare work—the deacons.

Presbyters or Elders. Other officials known as elders or presbyters came into prominence soon after the deacons. These, as a rule, were the most influential members of the congregations. Their advice was sought concerning church services and finances. As the churches grew and became more influential, and as their obligations became greater and more widespread, an overseeing presbyter or bishop was appointed.

Bishops. The work of the church was cared for at first by the members. They were forced to follow their ordinary occupations and devote their spare time to the church. This was the case with some of the early bishops; but as the work and responsibilities of these men grew, it became impossible for them to do anything else and still do justice to their work in the church. Each bishop had full charge of the services and finances of his own congregation, assisted, of course, by the deacons and presbyters. The churches were going through the testing time of their existence, and upon the strength of the leaders the future of the early Christian church depended. The people realized this, and the early bishops were the strongest and best characters that could be found among the different congregations.

The Bishoprics. In course of time the influence of the bishops grew. This was especially true in the large cities, such as Antioch, Alexandria, and Rome. Small Christian communities sprang up on the outskirts of these cities and were placed under the bishops' care. Finally, these bishoprics came to include wide areas.

Why Constantine Accepted Christianity. What could have been the motive of Constantine when, as we have seen, he accepted Christianity and used the sign of the cross to conquer his enemy at Milvian Bridge? Most historians say it was political, because he feared the growth of Christianity which so many of his subjects had accepted. He conquered in the name of the cross, but militarism for one's own political gain was not included in the teachings of the Martyr who died on the cross. However, the first war had been fought in His name; and many were to follow.



CONVERSION OF CONSTANTINE

During one of his battles it is said that Constantine saw in the sky a cross of fire bearing the words, *In hoc signo vinces*. He won, and henceforth his banners bore the sign of the cross and those words.

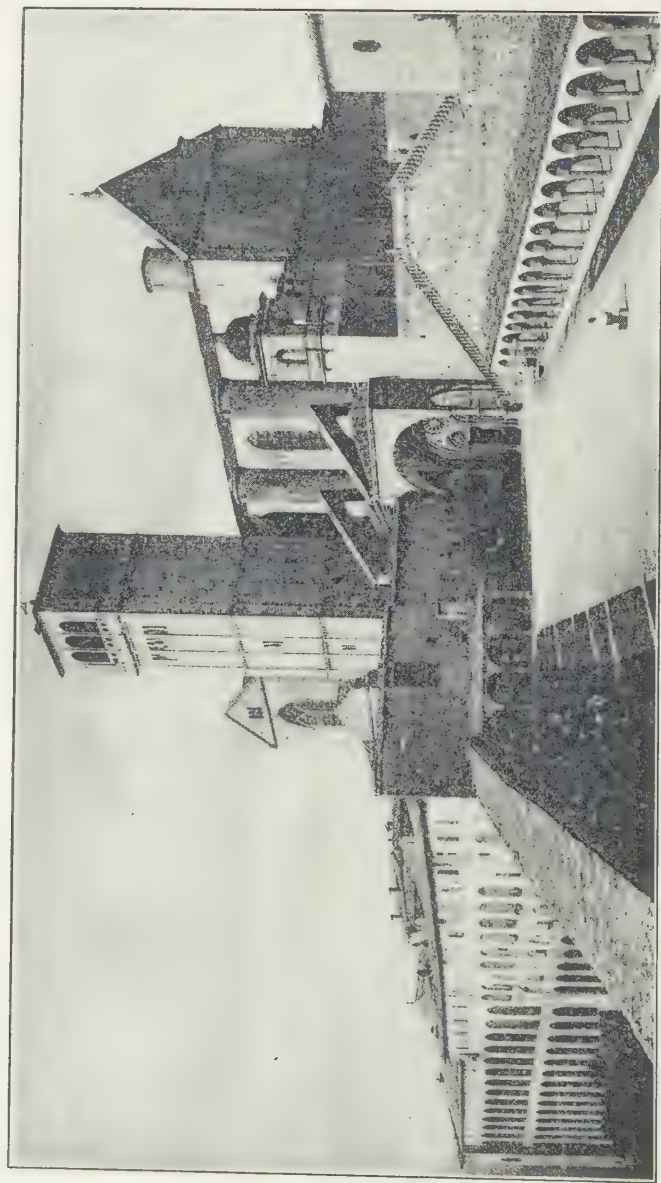
Arius and Athanasius. As the Christian church developed, its leaders tried to define more clearly their conception of the nature of Christ. Two priests of Alexandria differed on this point and each gathered around him a strong body of followers. Arius held that as Christ had been created by God he was inferior to God. Athanasius said that Christ was equal to God. Both asserted that Jesus was the son of God, but on the question of equality the church split.

Council of Nicæa, 325 A.D. Already the feeling within the church was strong for unity of belief. Moreover Constantine desired unity because a divided church would not be of much political use in holding the empire together. So he called a council of all the bishops at Nicæa in 325. The two opinions regarding the nature of Christ were put to vote. The majority decided in favor of Athanasius, and Arius was condemned as a heretic. The Council then prepared the Nicene creed, declaring that God and Christ are co-equal.

Ulfilas. The followers of Arius did not desert him, and many of the barbaric Germanic tribes were converted by Arian Christians and accepted the Arian creed. The greatest of the Arian Christian missionaries was Ulfilas (ŭl'fī-lās), a converted Goth, who had been educated at Constantinople. Ulfilas went among the West Goths, and finally translated the Bible into the Gothic language. This translation is the earliest Germanic writing on record. It is interesting to learn that Ulfilas is said to have omitted the books of Kings and Samuel, because he thought the Goths were already too warlike as it was.

The Monasteries. Most of the literary work of this period was done in monasteries. These were places where Christian men went to live in seclusion, away from the evil influences of the outside world. The monks, as they were called, spent much of their time in study and in prayer. Many of them worked in the fields or helped in the kitchen and at other odd jobs. As the monasteries became more popular they were given large buildings and tracts of land. Corresponding to monasteries for men there were convents for women, who were called nuns.

Anchorites and Cenobites. This method of living was not peculiar to Christians. Other peoples, of other religions, had adopted somewhat similar modes of life long before. Christian monasticism had its beginnings in Egypt and Syria, in the early third century. It consisted of two types of people. The Anchorites (ăn'kô-rîtz) (hermits) spent their lives alone in some far out-of-the-way place, denying themselves everything but the barest necessities of life. The Cenobites (sĕn'ô-bitz) (monks) lived together in one large building, sharing everything in common. It was this latter system that soon



CHURCH AND CONVENT OF SAN FRANCESCO, ASSISI

No single picture can portray the strength and glory of the great basilica of San Francesco and its colonnaded monastery, high on the hill of Mount Aurbasio, where it stands guard over the peaceful valley beneath. Built in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, the monastery to-day is a school, while the Upper and Lower Churches attract pilgrims from all over the world to honor the memory of St. Francis and admire the beautiful frescoes of Giotto.

afterwards spread into Greece, Italy, and the barbarian lands.

Importance of Monasteries. The monasteries became places of refuge, for they were at first respected by everyone, civilized and barbarian alike. It was in these monasteries that much of the early art, literature, and learning were preserved during the "dark ages" of the barbarian invasions. They become more and more important as history goes on.



From an old woodcut

A MONK WRITING

Most of the literary work of this period was done by these men in the monasteries.

Christianity the State Religion. Besides the West Goths, other Germanic tribes in or near the Roman Empire were visited by both Arian and Athanasian missionaries during the fourth and fifth centuries. Theodosius, about the middle of the fifth century, had made Christianity the State religion. Sacrifices to the pagan gods were forbidden and the old temples were closed. Christianity had found its place among Romans and barbarians.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Tell something of the work of Diocletian as Emperor other than his persecution of the Christians.
2. Before the bishops were given power over the Christian church how were these churches controlled?
3. The Germanic tribes had no alphabet. How then was Ulfilas able to construct a written language in the Gothic?
4. Why did the Cenobite form of monasticism come to prevail over the Anchorite?

5. What were the advantages and the disadvantages of monasticism in the fourth century?
6. Have you a welfare association in your community? If so, find out how that organization is financed and what duties it performs. Compare this work with that done by the early Christian communities.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Read the description in *Quo Vadis* of the burning of the Christians by order of Nero.

II. Discuss the following as described in Davis' *Readings in Ancient History*:

- a. The Founding of Constantinople—No. 114
- b. How Constantine Favored Christianity—No. 113
- c. St. Simon of Stylites—No. 136

III. Read the story of the luxury and arrogance of the rich in Rome. Davis, *Readings*—No. 114.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

EMERTON	<i>Introduction to the Middle Ages</i>	Ginn
THORNDIKE	<i>History of Medieval Europe</i>	Houghton
MORRISON	<i>Jews Under Roman Rule</i>	Putnam
ADAMS	<i>Civilization During the Middle Ages</i>	Scribner

HISTORICAL NOVELS

KINGSLEY	<i>Hypatia</i> (early Christianity)	Macmillan
KOUNS	<i>Arius the Libyan</i>	Appleton
NEWMAN	<i>Callistra</i>	Longmans
SIENKIEWICZ	<i>Quo Vadis</i>	Little
WALLACE	<i>Ben Hur: Tale of the Christ</i>	Harper

CHAPTER XI

THE BARBARIAN INVASIONS

China. The Chinese occupied the territory in the south-eastern part of Asia. They had a civilization as old as that of Egypt. In 220 B.C. Shi-Hwang-Ti became Emperor of China. During his reign fine roads, beautiful buildings, and large canals were constructed. He started the erection of the Great Wall of China in the northern part of his dominions.



THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA

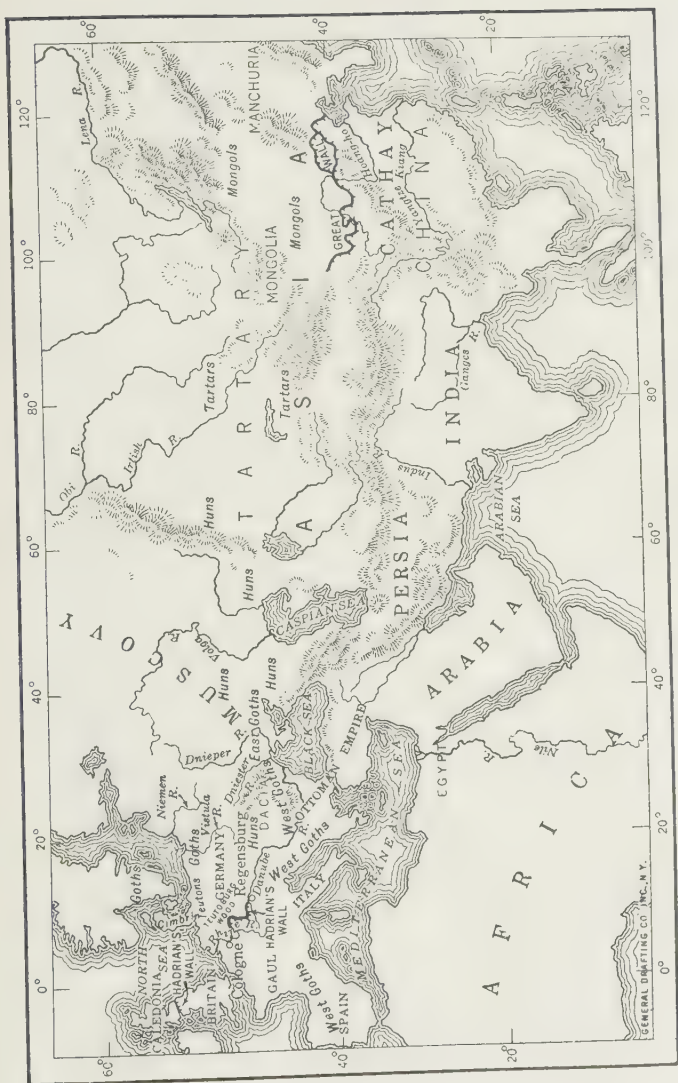
This wall, which is still standing, was built as a barrier against certain Tartar, Mongol, and Hunnish tribes that were battering at his frontiers. It was continually being extended, until by the fifteenth century it was more than 1,000 miles long. It is thirty feet high in some places, while its width at the base averages twenty-five feet and its top about fifteen feet.

Repulse of the Nomadic Tribes. Because of the Great Wall, and the strength of the Chinese armies, these wild nomadic tribes failed to overrun the Empire. On the other hand, the Chinese became the aggressors. They drove the barbarians westward from their old haunts, and settled in these lands themselves.

Hadrian's Wall in Britain. Three hundred years after Shi-Hwang-Ti, the Roman legions under Hadrian built a concrete wall in Britain as a defense against the Celtic tribes to the north—the Picts and the Scots.

The Rhine-Danube Wall. In Europe the Rhine and Danube rivers formed the natural boundary of the Roman Empire. This, too, was reinforced by order of Hadrian. A stone wall extended from the city of Cologne (kô-lôn') on the Rhine to Regensburg (ră'gěnz-běrg) on the Danube, a distance of about 300 miles. This was built as a barrier to check the advance of certain Germanic tribes on the north and east.

The Great Enclosure. Thus we see that two Emperors, in different parts of the world and unknown to each other, within three hundred years had constructed three great walls for the same purpose. In 300 A.D. the vast territory north of this crescent, from the Hadrian Wall in Britain to the Great Wall of China, was filled with thousands of nomadic tribes. Within this Great Eurasian Enclosure, among the mountains, rivers, swamps, forests, and plains, these restless tribes wandered from place to place. They were always on the watch for better pasture and farm land. Tribal warfare was frequent, and only the fittest survived. These people are the forbears of most of the modern nations of Europe, Asia, and America. Unlike the wall of China the walls of Hadrian gave way, and the Germanic peoples mingled and fused with the Romano-Gallic civilization of the West and the Greek culture of the East.



THE GREAT EURASIAN ENCLOSURE

Hadrian's Wall between the Rhine and the Danube and the Great Wall of China helped to prevent the barbarians from pouring through those two principal gaps in the line of natural protection formed by the Rhine and the Danube Rivers and the mountains, lakes, and deserts that stretch across Europe and Asia.

Roman Contact with the Germanic Tribes. The contact of Roman and German began as early as 113 B.C. At this time, it will be recalled, the Cimbri and Teutons were almost annihilated by the armies of Marius. In 55 B.C. Julius Cæsar led his legions against other German tribes, but failed to conquer them as he had the Gauls. From the time of Augustus Cæsar we find the Romans hiring German soldiers to serve in the armies of the Empire. Often whole tribes with their chiefs enlisted. When these warriors were discharged many of them returned to their own country, with a fair idea of Roman customs and culture. They told their neighbors of the wonderful cities and great wealth of Rome, and these tales of Roman splendor spread from tribe to tribe. For several hundred years after this, the story of the Germans is one of sallies, attacks, massacres, and attempted invasions of the Roman world. Sometimes they were victorious and sometimes they were defeated, but always they pressed toward their goal.

The Goths. The next important Germanic tribes to strike our attention after the Cimbri and Teutons are the Goths—tall, light complexioned, and sandy haired. According to tradition, these Gothic tribes had formerly lived in the Scandinavian peninsula. As early as 1300 B.C. there is evidence of commercial intercourse between the Goths along the Baltic and the civilization in Asia Minor along the Black Sea. During this period amber was being used by the people of Asia Minor. This was secured from the Baltic regions in exchange for bronze, pearls, and spice. Assyrian swords have been found in Sweden, while sables and ermines from the animals of the northland were worn by the well-to-do along the Fertile Crescent. The trade routes were probably up and down the Dniester (nēs'ter), Dnieper (nē'pěr), Vis'tula, and Niemen (nē'měn) rivers.

Division of the Gothic Tribes. Just when the Goths migrated from the Scandinavian peninsula we do not know. As they traveled southward nothing was more natural than to follow the old trade routes. After a time the Goths divided into two great branches: the Ostrogoths or East Goths, and the Visigoths or West Goths. These tribes took their names from their relative positions along the Black Sea in Europe,

to which place they had migrated,—the Ostrogoths to the east, and the Visigoths occupying the land west of them to the Danube.

The West Goths. Both branches, exhausted and weakened from their continual conflict with neighboring tribes, settled down for a short time. But within a few years they were receiving tribute from Rome to keep the peace. Later, the Emperor Aurelian gave up the Roman province of Dacia, east of the Danube, to the West Goths. Here they remained for a century, sometimes at war with the Romans and sometimes with neighboring tribes. It was while they were in this country that the Gothic bishop Ulfilas converted many of them. Here, too, was the site of the bishopric over which this great missionary ruled. The West Goths were becoming more settled in their ways, and would probably have remained in Dacia had not events been taking place in the Great Enclosure that were destined to change their plans very suddenly. About 375 they were driven from their homes by a new foe, the terrible Hun.

The Huns. These Huns were a branch of a third great race of mankind, the Mongolian or yellow race. They were descendants of the same people who, six hundred years before, were battering unsuccessfully at the Great Wall of China. The Huns are described as small of stature, round shouldered, and extremely ugly. They were dirty of body, and wore their long hair tied in a knot on top of their heads. They are said to have gashed their faces to give them a fierce look. Added to all this, they were remarkably skilled horsemen.

East Goths Defeated by Huns. The Huns came into Europe through the passage between the Ural Mountains and the Caspian Sea, known as the "Gateway of the Nations." They defeated the East Goths and forced many of them to serve in the Hunnish ranks as soldiers. The Huns, with their drafted allies, pillaged and destroyed everything in sight as they pushed toward the West Gothic frontiers.

West Goths Cross the Danube. In 376 the West Goths appealed to Valens, Emperor of the East, for protection; and after nearly a year of negotiations they were permitted to settle in Mœsia (mē'shī-à), just north of Thrace in Greece. For days and days the Romans superintended the passage

of the Gothic hosts across the Danube. The river was filled with boats. Over a million barbarian men, women, and children, with their flocks and herds, made this memorable voyage.

The refugees were grateful to Rome at first. But later resentment was kindled by various precautions taken to insure peace and by the profiteering of the Roman governors.

Battle of Adrianople, 378 A.D. After a time those East Goths who had not been conquered by the Huns crossed the Danube, despite Roman protests, and joined their kinsmen. The economic plight of the barbarians and the arrogant Roman policy caused bitter feeling and resulted in war. West Goths and East Goths, including their countrymen serving in the Roman legions, together with many slaves, banded together and marched into Thrace. They pillaged the country, and finally defeated the Roman Army at Adrianople, and Valens was killed.

Last Union of East and West, 392. The Goths attempted to take Constantinople, but failed. Theodosius was appointed Emperor of the East after Valens' death. He pacified the Goths by his square-deal methods, and soon all of them were at peace with Rome again. Under Theodosius the Roman Empire, East and West, was united for the last time. In 395 his two sons succeeded him, Arcadius as Emperor of the East and Honorius (hō-nō'ri-ūs) as Emperor of the West. Both were weaklings, influenced by a group of selfish politicians.

Alaric and Stilicho. One of the first acts of Arcadius was to reduce the pay of the Gothic soldiers in the Roman legions. This was enough for the Goths; the plighted word of the Romans had been broken, and they rebelled. All Visigoths joined in the rebellion. Under Alaric, a young man of twenty, as their leader they marched south through Macedonia and Thessaly, destroying cities and killing the inhabitants. Athens was saved by paying a large tribute to Alaric. Constantinople was in danger, and would probably have fallen a prey to the Visigoths had it not been for Stilicho, the Vandal general of the Western Empire. Stilicho succeeded in driving Alaric northward, after which the Eastern Empire made peace with the Goths and Stilicho returned to Rome.

The Goths Checked by Stilicho. Twenty years later Alaric and his army appeared on the borders of northern Italy and prepared to invade the country. Stilicho defeated Alaric, but later gave him a large sum of money to leave Italy. Alaric accepted the bribe, upon the advice of his chiefs, and the Visigoths went north once more. Two decades of war and wanderings had passed, and still these barbarians had no land to call their own.



A ROMAN TRIUMPH

The gorgeous procession was the outstanding feature of the holiday occasioned by a Roman triumph. To the blare of trumpets senators, army officers, consuls, the day's hero from the ranks with his family, the tribunes, cavalry, and infantry all swept along the Via Sacra to the capital from the Field of Mars outside the city gates. On arrival, the captives were executed, flower-decked oxen sacrificed, and the victor fêted and feasted.

Last Roman Triumph, 404 A.D. There was great rejoicing in Rome. A magnificent arch was built and upon it was written the words, "The Gothic Nation has been subdued, never to rise again." The Roman legions, headed by Honorius and Stilicho, marched through the arch of triumph just as the great Roman conquerors of old had done.

This, however, was the last triumph at Rome under the Empire.

Death of Stilicho. A few years later, Honorius and his advisers, jealous of the popularity of Stilicho and believing the country safe from Gothic invasion, had the great Vandal general murdered at Ravenna, the new capital of the Roman Empire in the West. Alaric now demanded that he be placed in charge of the Roman armies, and that his followers be given land on which to settle. This was granted by the Emperor and then refused; granted and refused again. Exasperated, Alaric decided to attack the city of Rome itself. He marched southward and besieged the city. Hunger and disease forced the Romans to sue for peace.

Alaric Sacks Rome, 410 A.D. Alaric demanded gold, silver, and other valuable property. He demanded lands in northern Italy for his followers and the emancipation of all barbarian slaves. Honorius, deciding one thing one day and another the next, finally refused the terms. Thereupon the Goths poured into the Imperial city. Alaric ordered his men to respect the Christian churches of St. Peter and St. Paul and to spare the lives of all people who took refuge in them. In other places, for an entire week, the Goths pillaged, plundered, and killed. They loaded their wagons with all the movable property they could lay hands on. Silks, tapestries, furniture, and pictures were taken from the homes of the wealthy; and then Alaric, at the end of the dreadful week, left Rome and started farther south with his warriors. He gathered ships at Rhegium, intending to cross over and conquer Sicily and then go on over to Africa. Before he had accomplished this he died.

Pagan Propaganda after Sack of Rome. The sack of Rome was the cause of much pagan propaganda. Those people in the Roman Empire who still worshiped the old gods, and looked upon Christianity as an evil, maintained that the disaster was brought about because the Romans had forsaken their gods. The Christian faith, however, had taken too firm a hold upon the majority of the people, Roman and barbarian alike, to be dislodged.

Last Gladiatorial Combat, 404. During the very year in which the last Roman triumph took place a royal edict was

issued placing a ban on gladiatorial combats. This edict was the result of the martyrdom of a Christian monk, Telem'achus. Two gladiators were fighting in an amphitheater when Telemachus stepped into the arena between the combatants. He was stoned to death by the spectators, but the brave monk had not died in vain. Many who sat in the amphitheater that day were touched, including Honorius the Emperor; and shortly thereafter these combats were forbidden. Thus we see that paganism was making a losing fight against Christianity. The Christians met the pagan arguments so effectively that their religion became more and more firmly established.

Visigoths in Southern France and Spain. Gradually the Visigoths adopted the Roman language and customs. They were finally made allies of Rome and given lands in southern France, and almost the entire Spanish peninsula in addition. The West Goths had gained what they had been seeking for years—lands upon which to settle. Their migrations were ended, and they now settled down and established a Visigothic kingdom, with Toulouse (tōō-loōz') as their capital. Spain and southern France were no longer a part of the Roman Empire.

Result of Alaric's Sack of Rome. One of the most important results of Alaric's invasion of Italy was the recalling of the Roman legions on the frontiers, in Britain and in Continental Europe, to defend Rome. This left the borders undefended, and tribe after tribe poured into the Roman Empire. They came so fast, and from so many directions that the story is confusing and hard to follow. Alaric had opened the gates of the Great Enclosure! Vandals, Huns, Ostrogoths, Lombards, and Franks came down into Spain, Africa, Italy, and Gaul. The Angles, Saxons, and Jutes crossed the channel into Britain, which was no longer guarded by Roman soldiers.

The Vandals. The Vandals, like the Goths, formerly lived along the Baltic, and had migrated to the southeastern and southwestern parts of Europe. While Alaric was fighting in Italy, the Vandals marched into northern Gaul and then southward into Spain. When the West Goths were given this land the Vandals were one of the tribes they had to conquer. After this was accomplished, and peace was re-

stored, the Vandals crossed over into Africa. They conquered much of the northern part of that continent, including the province of Numidia and the city of Carthage, which had been rebuilt by Julius Cæsar and his successors. The Vandals overran and destroyed the farm lands and crops. Many of them took to the sea and became pirates. Under their King, Genseric (jěn'sēr-ik), they pillaged and plundered the coast towns up and down the Mediterranean. They attacked and destroyed the merchant ships that plied these waters. So wanton were their destructive methods that even today we use the word vandalism to mean the willful destruction of anything with no cause other than the joy of doing it.



VANDALS ON THE MARCH TO ROME

The Huns. In the fifth century the Huns were living in the territory now occupied by parts of the modern republic of Czecho-Slovakia, Austria, Poland, and Hungary. Here they had remained after expelling the Goths from the east Danube regions. Many enlisted in the Roman legions to guard the frontiers. They, too, heard of the thriving cities and great wealth in the south, and especially of Constantinople and Rome. While pillaging the Mediterranean coasts, the Huns under Attila (ăťĩ-lă) were starting on another campaign of conquest.

Attila in Gaul. Attila was termed by Roman and barbarian alike "The Scourge of God." He defeated the Roman armies of the Eastern Empire and forced Constantinople to pay him an annual tribute. He then marched northwestward into northern Gaul (Belgium), conquering and enlisting many German tribes in his army. The Huns and East Goths, with their allies, now started south. Towns, villages, farms, and human lives were destroyed. Ashes and waste places were left in their trail. No wonder Attila boasted that the grass never grew where once his horse trod. Attila passed by the little town of Paris and pushed down towards Orleans. In Orleans the people closed their city gates, and under their bishop put up such a strong resistance that they were able to hold out till rescue came.

Defeat of Attila. The West Goths in southern Gaul heard of the approach of the Huns, and gathered under the leadership of their brave old king, Theodoric. The armies of the Roman Empire of the West were concentrated under their last great general Aëtius (a-ě'shĩ-űs). Other Germanic tribes, the Burgundians and Franks, joined Aëtius. The Huns, with their German allies, were driven from the walls of Orleans, and started to retreat to the Rhine. Near the town of Châlons, on the Marne River, the Hunnish hordes with their allies were defeated, in 451.

Attila's Invasion of Italy. North of the Alps, at the head of the Adriatic Sea, was the city of Aquileia, and against this stronghold Attila made his next attack. The inhabitants, known as the Venetii, fled from the city and settled on the little islands near the Adriatic coast. This

was the beginning of Venice, the greatest commercial city state of Europe from the tenth to the fifteenth century.

Death of Attila, 453. Attila then marched south through Italy. City after city opened its gates to him without striking a blow. He started for Rome and apparently decided to sack it, just as Alaric had done before him. Leo, the Bishop of Rome, with a delegation from the city, appeared before the Hun. A long conversation took place. Attila turned northward, gave up the idea of conquest, and died a year later. After Attila's death the Huns were scattered, and gradually they too fused with other tribes.



ATTILA

Attila, chief of the Huns, was defeated at Châlons in 451.

Romulus Augustulus. Many of the German mercenaries along the border were dissatisfied. They wanted land and settled homes. The Empire of the West had become so unstable that any man who controlled the barbarian legions was able to make himself Emperor. Orestes was in command of the Germanic troops in 474, and he succeeded in having his son, Romulus Augustulus, proclaimed Emperor. The boy was only six years old, and his throne depended upon the influence of his father over the fickle troops. These soldiers now asked Orestes to divide the Italian lands and give them one-third of all the confiscated farms and pasture lands. Orestes refused. Then Odoacer, chief of the Heruli, a small Germanic tribe, appeared before all the barbarians in an assembly and told them that he would grant their request if they would make him their leader. He was made King

by acclamation. He marched his army into Italy and deposed the young Emperor. This was in 476.

Empire of the West under Odoacer. The Roman lands were divided. The Germans took a third part of all the farms, either working the land themselves or collecting a third of the produce from the original owners. Other than this, the inhabitants were not disturbed. The Roman government was continued very much as it had been. Odoacer did not set himself up as an Emperor, but claimed to be ruling as a representative of the Eastern Empire. The Roman Senate sent the imperial insignia and all the royal vestments to Constantinople. They told Zeno, Emperor of the East, that they were perfectly willing to give up all claim to an Emperor of their own, and to allow his representative, Odoacer, to rule over them with the title of Patri-cian.

Odoacer Defeated by Theodoric, 490. Odoacer governed Italy for over fifteen years, then he in turn was defeated by Theodoric, King of the Ostrogoths. The East Goths had long been the allies of the Huns, but after Attila's death they seem to have banded together and settled in Panno'nia, the land bounded on the east and the north by the Danube. Theodoric, after being chosen King of the Ostrogoths, made an agreement with the Eastern Emperor to drive the Visigoths out of Italy. In 490 Odoacer was defeated, and at a banquet given by Theodoric he was murdered. The entire Ostrogothic nation now moved into Italy, and parceled out the land in much the same way as the Visigoths before them had done.

Empire of Theodoric. Theodoric had spent his boyhood as a hostage in Constantinople and was familiar with Roman law and government. He acknowledged the Eastern Emperor in a faint way, but was in reality master of Italy. The Roman law prevailed among the Romans, and the old Gothic code among the Goths. Where it was necessary for these two people to stand on common ground legally the Roman law was used. The court of Theodoric was established at Ravenna, and here architecture and learning flourished. The Gothic architecture, with which we are familiar today, had its beginnings at this time. Theodoric, by marriages and alliances, extended his Empire among the barbarians north

of the Alps and in Spain. He ruled with a strong hand and the country was in a state of peace and prosperity.

Fall of the Ostrogoths. Like the Vandals, the Ostrogoths were Arian Christians, and this had been a source of discontent among the orthodox churchmen of Rome. When the Vandals had been conquered by Justinian's general, Belisarius, because of their persecution of orthodox Christians in Africa, that general crossed over into Italy to attempt the conquest of the Ostrogoths. Eventually, the Ostrogoths were defeated, scattered, and fused with other Germanic peoples.

The Lombards. The year after Justinian's death, 566 A.D., A.D., the Lombards, a Germanic tribe, overran and occupied portions of Italy. Being Arians, they would not tolerate the Athanasian (orthodox) Christians. This caused trouble, as was always the case when these two creeds clashed. The Lombards settled in the Po Valley, and this part of Italy took the name of Lombardy. These Lombards were finally converted to the orthodox faith, and their King was crowned by the Bishop of Rome, Pope Gregory I.

Italy at End of Sixth Century. Italy, from now on, was in a state of political confusion. The Emperor in the East had no power over the Lombards. His exarch (governor) in Italy was a mere figurehead. In the south the Lombard King had placed the land under rulers called dukes. The real rulers of Rome were the Popes. This was the situation until order was brought out of chaos by the greatest of the Germanic nations, the Franks, and the greatest of all Franks, Charlemagne (shär'lē-mān).

The Franks under Clovis. The Franks occupied the territory in north-western Gaul, and unlike most of the other barbarians had done very little



CLOVIS

The Merovingian, who made Paris his capital and gave to Gaul the name France.

wandering. There were two branches of the Franks, the Salians near the lower Rhine and the Rip'ua'rians to the north. In 486 Clovis was proclaimed King of the Franks. He united all the local tribes in what is now Belgium and France. He drove the Roman governor from Gaul, after defeating him at the battle of Soissons (swá'sōn'). Next, the Burgundians were conquered; then the Visigoths were driven from southern Gaul. Later, the Allemands (Germans) beyond the Rhine were defeated at the battle of Strass'burg.

Clovis. Clovis accepted the Christian faith, being greatly influenced in this by his wife Clotilda. He and three thousand of his warriors were baptized at the same time. Clovis united a great many people and ruled over a vast territory. His dominions included modern France, Holland, Belgium, and Germany. He claimed to be a descendant of Meroveus, a mythical hero, and for this reason he and his descendants are known as Merovingian Kings. The four children of Clovis were not able to hold his domains together. About two centuries later we find these rulers so weakened that the real government was in the hands of influential men called Mayors of the Palace. Moreover, the kingdom had been divided. The territory around Metz was called Austrasia or the East kingdom, while the territory around Paris was called Neustria or the West kingdom.

German Laws. When these various Germanic tribes came into the Roman Empire they had a religion of their own, consisting largely of nature and hero worship. They also had their own laws. They all discarded their religion, but retained their laws. These laws were not written down at first. But as the barbarians came in contact with Roman civilization, and especially with Christianity, they had the monks or the Roman scribes write them out. The laws of one tribe after another were thus retained, and with few exceptions they were very similar.

Compurgation. The laws of the Germans were personal, especially those relating to the conviction and punishment of crime. A person accused had only to get a certain number of persons, known as compurgators, to swear they believed he was telling the truth when he declared he was innocent. If a noble was accused by a freeman, it took a smaller num-

ber of compurgators than if he had been accused by a noble; while if a serf was the accuser it took only one or two. On the other hand, a serf accused by a noble sometimes needed as high as forty compurgators to free him; while a serf accused by a serf required not over a third as many. Moreover, the penalty for crime depended largely upon the social standing of the person accused.

It was because of the personal character of the laws that the barbarians never interfered with the Roman laws which governed Roman subjects. On the other hand, we have seen how Roman law was constantly being extended to govern all subject peoples.

Ordeal by Fire. The barbarians believed that if a man were guilty he would rather confess than anger his gods by lying. This led to another method of proof known as the ordeal. The ordeal by fire consisted of carrying hot irons or thrusting one's hand into a fire. If the accused could carry the hot irons and show no signs of the irons having affected him he had been protected by his gods, and accordingly he was declared innocent. If his hand was not burned by thrusting it into a fire he was innocent. Otherwise in both cases he was guilty.

Ordeal by Water. The ordeal by water was very similar to the others. If the accused could put his arm in boiling water and three days later show no signs of burns or scalds he was innocent. If there were any such signs he was guilty.

Wager of Battle. The wager of battle was based upon the belief that the gods would give victory only to the innocent. A man accused by another and unable to prove his innocence by compurgators, because of witnesses on the other side, would be given the opportunity of fighting. The participants themselves could either fight or hire others to fight for them. This also held good in the ordeals by fire and water. The victor was always declared innocent.

These laws, of course, had been adopted when the tribes believed in their old nature gods and in fetish worship. This was the worship of inanimate objects, such as sticks and stones, supposed to possess magical power. For a long time after the barbarians were converted the ordeals went on just the same.



TRIAL BY COMBAT

The angel presiding over the battle was supposed to give victory to the innocent party.

Government of Germanic Tribes. Among the Germanic tribes the right of leadership fell to the strongest and bravest son. All chiefs or kings were chosen in the assembly of the warriors. The assembly also made the tribal laws. No king received more of the booty of war than his followers. Even Clovis was rebuked at Soissons, and forbidden a vase that he particularly desired.

Position of Women. Women, although compelled to do most of the manual labor, both at home and in the fields, were highly respected. The penalty for insulting a mother or sister, in any of these old tribes, was death.

Folk-Songs and Religion. The old folk-songs and religion of the Germanic people are given in the German *Nibelungenlied* and in the Icelandic *Eddas* (*ēd'áz*). These are filled with the stories of their heroes and gods. This literature was collected and written down between the twelfth and seventeenth centuries. It is based, of course, upon oral tradition handed down from father to son, just as in Greece at the time of Homer.

The Niebelungenlied. The *Niebelungenlied* tells of the great German hero Siegfried (the Netherlander) and his achievements. The tale is much like that of the Greek hero stories. The leading female character, the beautiful Kriemhild of Burgundy, is the prize for which many of the kings fight. But of all her lovers she cares only for Siegfried. The Saxons, Huns, and other tribes play their parts in the *Niebelungenlied*. Siegfried is a traditional hero of most of the English speaking races of today, as well as of the German nations.

The Eddas. The *Eddas* tell of the great gods—Thor, Woden, and others. They, too, resemble the gods of the Greeks and the Latins. From the two gods named above we get the names of two days of the week, Wednesday (Woden's day) and Thursday (Thor's day).

The Work To Be Done. Here, then, were the barbarians, with their laws, customs, literature, and religion; with their faults and their virtues. These were the people who invaded the Roman world and were cemented to the new civilization by Christianity. The Christian church was now to spread its doctrine and influence among these peoples in their newly settled homes. And they, in turn, were to unite with nations whom they had conquered, to meet and turn back the Mohammedan invasion that came sweeping in from the East.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Why was it necessary to have a wall along the Rhine-Danube frontiers? Study the map for this answer.
2. What other peoples besides the Huns belong to the Mongolian race of mankind? With what two other races have we come in contact previous to this?
3. What is the importance of the sack of Rome by Alaric from a religious, a political, and a social viewpoint?
4. Should Alaric have been given land for his followers to settle upon? Why?
5. What would you say as to the importance of the battle of Châlons?
6. Why would Venice be important in the Middle Ages?
7. How much of present Europe did Clovis and the Franks control in their time?

8. Is there any possibility of truth either in the *Eddas* or in the *Nibelungenlied*? Why?
9. Trace the old Gothic trade routes and name the modern nations through which they pass.
10. Distinguish between the following barbarian leaders: Alaric, Stilicho, Genseric (or Geiseric), Attila, Odoacer, Theodoric, Clovis. Reference: Haaren and Poland, *Famous Men of the Middle Ages*. Write an imaginary interview with any one of these men concerning some important event in his life.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Read portion of the *Eddas* and the *Nibelungenlied*, and compare them with Greek mythology and with Greek hero stories.

II. Read Chapter II, Book I, of Robinson's *Readings in European History* for a description of Western Europe before the Barbarian Invasions; also on page 29 of the same book, "Why Roman Subjects Prefer to Live Among the Barbarians."

III. Compare the Hellenic and Italic Barbarian invasions, and the civilizations with which they came in contact, with the Germanic invasions two thousand years later.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

THORNDIKE	<i>History of Medieval Europe</i>	Houghton
HODGKIN	<i>Italy and Her Invaders</i> , Vols. I and II	Oxford
EMERTON	<i>Introduction to the Middle Ages</i>	Ginn
ARMOUR	<i>The Fall of the Nibelungs</i>	Dutton
MABIE	<i>Norse Stories Retold from the Eddas</i> (edited by Katharine Lee Bates)	Scribner Rand

CHAPTER XII

RISE OF THE PAPACY AND GROWTH OF ISLAM

The Nicene Creed was the forerunner of many controversies that eventually separated the Eastern and Western churches—known today as the Greek Catholic and the Roman Catholic.

Church Organization. The organization of the Christian Church had made vast strides up to the time of the Council

of Nicæa (325 A.D.). The Church government was divided into provinces, similar to the political government. Each city within the province was under a bishop's direction; and the bishops were assisted by the priests and deacons. All of the bishops in any one province were under the direction of an archbishop or metropolitan. The archbishops of certain provinces were grouped under a larger division known as a patriarchate, and above the archbishops of this last division stood the patriarch.

The Five Patriarchs. After Constantine had established the Roman capital at Constantinople he made the bishop of that city a patriarch. At the beginning of the fifth century there were five patriarchs: the bishops of Antioch, Alexandria, Constantinople, and Jerusalem in the East, and the Bishop of Rome in the West.

Bishop of Rome Profits by Division of Empire. The removal of the capital to Constantinople, and the subsequent decline of the Roman Empire in the West, led to the ascendancy of the religious and political power of the bishops at Rome. In the East the Emperor was considered the highest authority in both Church and State; while the West, overrun by barbarians and governed by weaklings, looked to the bishops of Rome for both temporal and spiritual help.

Leo the Great, 440-461. The shifting of political authority, in the person of the Roman Emperor, from the West to the East, cleared the stage for that outstanding personality in the formation of the papacy, Leo the Great.

Leo was Bishop of Rome from 440 to 461. During those twenty-one years he endeavored in every way to establish the supremacy of Rome and its bishop over all other Christian churches. While he is often designated as Pope Leo, the word Pope was not used in its modern sense. Nearly all bishops at this time were given the affectionate title of *papa* (pope). We have already seen how Leo must have gained the love and esteem of his people when he alone dared to plead their cause before the barbarian invaders, Attila and Genseric. The Emperor of the West, in a shrinking and cowardly attitude, had failed to protect his subjects from invasion. A weakling, he had relinquished this responsibility, and into the breach stepped the brave Leo. And the power

assumed by him in behalf of the Church was to wax stronger and stronger for hundreds of years.

Petrine Theory of Supremacy. According to Leo, the authority of the Bishop and Church of Rome over all other bishops and churches, both east and west, was due to "divine right." Upon this subject he preached a sermon, the text of which was the following:

And I say to thee that thou art Peter, and upon this rock will I build my church, and the gates of Hell shall not prevail against it. And I will give unto thee the keys of the kingdom of heaven. And whatsoever thou shalt bind on earth shall be bound in Heaven, and whatsoever thou shalt loose on earth shall be loosed also in Heaven.

From this passage of Scripture Leo developed what is known as the Petrine theory of supremacy for the Church at Rome. His argument was to this effect. Peter had been given the keys of heaven, and authority over all the apostles. The church tradition had it that he had established his Church at Rome and was a Bishop of that Church. This authority which was vested in Peter by Christ was to be handed on to all succeeding bishops of Rome. Upon this theory, and with no rival Emperor to dispute his authority, the supremacy of the Papacy at Rome was established.

St. Benedict, 480-543. Long before the time of Leo, the monasteries were important agencies for protecting Christianity and preserving civilization. Until the time of St. Benedict, however, there were no general rules for the establishment and regulation of these monasteries. Each group of monks was a law unto itself, doing what it considered to be right. St. Benedict founded several monasteries, the most important of which was Monte Cassino (still standing), located between Rome and Naples.

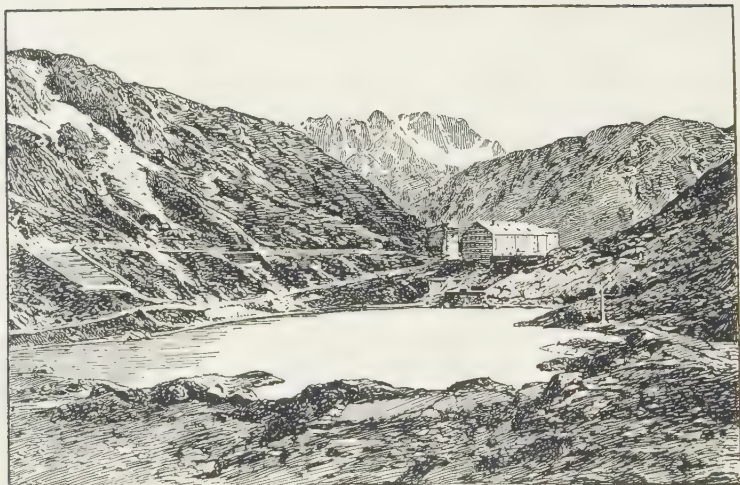
Benedictine Vows. The chief rules laid down by Benedict included poverty, chastity, obedience, piety, and labor. All monks entering the Benedictine order took these vows. The government of the monastery was placed in charge of an abbot (abba—father). The abbot was to rule justly, show-

ing no favoritism. The former slave was to be treated as well as the former noble.

Life in the Monastery. The monastery became a religious school, where all might learn to read, write, and interpret the Scriptures and other selected church literature. The day was divided into certain periods: first, for any manual labor that was necessary to the maintenance of the abbey and its inhabitants; second, for study; third, for prayer and meditation. There were regular hours for meals and for rest. Another rule required that hospitality should always be extended to pilgrims and strangers who sought admission.

Description of a Monastery. The vow of poverty applied only to the monks and not to the monasteries. The monks shared all necessities—such as food, clothing, shelter, and books—as common property. Through gifts of money and of lands many of these monasteries became wealthy. There was an inner court called a cloister; and around the cloister were many buildings, usually connected by covered walks, which made it possible to go from one building to another protected from the weather. The buildings surrounding the cloister included the dormitory (sleeping quarters) of the monks, a dining room, a bakery, a store house, and a chapel. The fields belonging to the monasteries were cultivated, and in this way these orders became self-sustaining. With such a diversity of work as was needed for their upkeep it can readily be seen that men in all walks of life could find something appealing about entering a monastery. From the tenth to the fifteenth centuries, soldier monks were employed to guard these orders. Large walls and moats (waterways) were built surrounding the monastery. This was necessary because of the confusion and the lack of law and order during this period.

Hospice of St. Bernard, 962 A.D. While the order of St. Benedict became the most popular in western Europe, it must be remembered that there were other orders. High on the top of a mountain road 8,700 feet above sea level, in a pass of the Swiss Alps, was erected the monastery of St. Bernard. It was founded by an Augustine monk. The Augustines followed the teachings of St. Augustine, an African bishop in the fifth century. This monastery was a large



HOSPICE OF ST. BERNARD

Formerly the monks of St. Bernard supplied food and shelter free, accepting only voluntary offerings from their guests. The great influx of tourists in recent years, however, has forced a change in this policy and now a nominal sum is charged.

stone building, able to accommodate hundreds of travelers with eating and sleeping quarters. The monks of St. Bernard vowed to remain for fifteen years in the severe cold of this mountain altitude, and aid travelers who were making the journey either to or from Italy. Few of these brave monks outlived the fifteen years, because of the hardships endured.

Rescue Work of St. Bernard. The monks were assisted in their rescue work by that famous breed of dogs known as the St. Bernard. These animals—large, strong, and kindly—were supplied with food and clothing which were strapped to their bodies. Many travelers, such as merchants and pilgrims, dying from cold and hunger were rescued by these St. Bernard dogs. The records of St. Bernard show that there were as many as five hundred persons sheltered and cared for in one day.

Gregory the Great, 590-604. The first person to be officially designated as Pope by the Catholic authorities was

Gregory I (the Great). Gregory was appointed Bishop of Rome in 590 and held the office until his death. He had come from a wealthy Roman family and was well educated, but later entered the Benedictine order. His appointment as Bishop of Rome had been sanctioned by the Eastern Emperor, and Gregory himself always maintained that he was the equal and not the superior of the four Eastern patriarchs. He greatly increased the temporal power of the Popes by making political treaties with the Lombards. This was possible because of the weakness of the Eastern Emperor and his exarch in Italy. Neither was able to cope with the situation which had filled Italy with the barbarians; so Gregory became not only the religious head of Rome but also the political ruler, to a great extent.

His Religious Work. Among other things, Gregory did everything in his power to have the rule of St. Benedict established in all the Western monasteries. His greatest work, however, was the impetus he gave to the spread of Christianity by sending missionary bands to all parts of the world.

While Gregory was still a monk he happened one day to pass through a Roman slave market. There, being auctioned off to the highest bidder, was a group of fair skinned and light haired boys. Upon inquiry he was told that they were Angles, from the island of Britain. The Angles had gone into Britain with the Saxons and Jutes, about 449. After conquering the Romano-Celtic people, or driving them northward, they had settled in Kent near the Thames River. They were heathen, and had destroyed nearly all signs of Christianity in Britain. Gregory vowed, then, that some day he would win the land of Britain back to Christianity. As bishop of Rome, his opportunity was at hand.

St. Augustine in Britain. In 596 Gregory sent a monk by the name of Augustine with forty assistants to Britain, to convert the Anglo-Saxons. Ethelbert was the King of Kent, one of a number of petty kingdoms at this time. He had married a Frankish princess who was a Christian. Although himself a heathen, because of his wife's religion Ethelbert received Augustine and his fellow monks cordially. Soon the King and many of his subjects accepted Christianity. The monks were given the Church of St. Martens, at Canter-

bury, which had been built during the Roman occupation. This quaint old church is still standing. Canterbury became the religious center of England, and played an important part in later history.

St. Patrick and St. Boniface. Other important missionaries were St. Patrick, who did much towards the conversion of the Irish; and St. Boniface, who worked among the Saxons and Frisians (*frīzh'ānz*), barbarian peoples in north-western Europe.

Danger to the Papacy. For more than one hundred years after the death of Gregory the Papacy was in constant danger of losing nearly all the power it had gained. Time after time Rome was threatened and even besieged by the Lombards, and was barely able to hold out. Added to this, the Eastern Emperor and the Pope were drawn into a controversy concerning the use of images in the church. This is known as the iconoclastic controversy,—iconoclast meaning “image breaker.” The Emperor issued an edict that the Western churches should ban all images and symbols from their church worship, as the Eastern churches had done. The Pope refused to obey this decree, and in addition excommunicated the Emperor and all the iconoclastic Eastern churches. By this is meant that they were cut off from all church rites and privileges. The Emperor retaliated by ordering a fleet to Italy. What the result of this would have been, had the fleet not been destroyed in a storm, it is hard to tell. The Pope was already hard pressed by the Lombards. It was another controversy between the Eastern and Western churches, and tended toward their final separation.

The Franks. While the Papacy was growing weaker, a strong political power was forming among the Franks, a power that was to strengthen not only western Europe but also the Papacy.

The Major Domus. We have already seen how Clovis united all the Franks, and how after his death the kingdom was divided among his sons. They guarded with jealous care their old custom of holding their lands in common. They resented any display of absolute authority over them. Because of these traits, the Franks placed their confidence in one of their own number, a noble who assisted the King and

who was known as a Major Domus, or Mayor of the Palace. At first this office was an insignificant one, much like that of an officer's orderly in the army today. But it had steadily grown in importance, until at this time it was the highest office in the land and its occupant wielded more power than the kings.

Charles Martel. The Merovingian (mĕr'ô-vĭn'ji-ăn) kings who followed Clovis became so weak and powerless that they were often styled the "do nothing kings." The Franks rallied around the Major Domus, since they considered him, rather than the King, their representative. Finally Austrasia and Neustria separated, and elected rival Mayors of the Palace. Eventually the kingdom was saved by the Austrasian Major Domus, Charles Martel' (the Hammer). He reunited Austrasia and Neustria, brought Burgundy under his control, and forced the ruler of Aquitania to make a favorable treaty.

Martel Unites the Franks. Charles Martel was a great statesman and soldier, but he did not assume the title of King, although he wielded all its power. He understood too well the nature of these semi-civilized peoples, and was content to issue all his orders in the name of the Merovingian "do nothing" King, who was not taken seriously by the Franks. The troubled affairs of the kingdom from its outside foes appeared settled when Charles was called on to face a new enemy, more powerful and dangerous than all his former ones combined,—the conquering Mohammedans from the east.

Semites and Indo-Europeans. The Arabs—called by the Romans Sar'acens—were a Semite people. In Epoch One we met these Semitic tribes of the desert fighting for possession of the Fertile Crescent. We saw them contending with the Indo-European tribes from the north. We witnessed the rise and fall of Semitic kingdoms, their great commercial enterprises, and their contribution to civilization in the matter of religion. In Epoch Two we found the two races facing each other across the Mediterranean—Carthage and Rome in deadly struggle. Now in the seventh century the arena of conflict between these two races—Semitic and Indo-European—was to move still further to the west, over into Spain and France.

Arabia—the Bedouins. During the long ages Arabia had been nominally subject to Egypt, Persia, Macedonia, Syria, Constantinople, and Rome. In the country the Bedouin (bēd'ōō-īn) (unsettled) tribes, headed by their sheiks (rulers), wandered from place to place, carrying their tents with them and searching for pasture and agricultural lands. Other Bedouin tribes were merely robber bands, preying upon the caravans and stripping them of their merchandise as they passed along the overland trade routes.



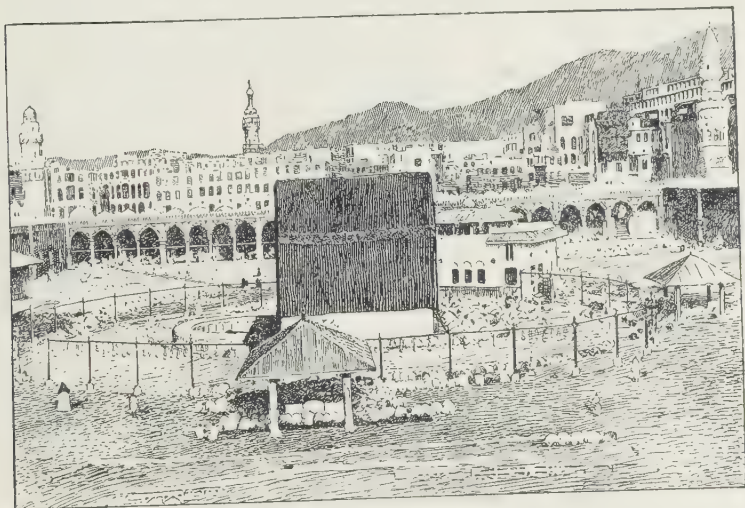
BEDOUINS OF THE DESERT

Modern Bedouin tribes are true nomads, roaming the deserts as their ancestors did two thousand years ago.

Mecca and Medina. When the seventh century opened there was no strong centralized government in Arabia. Many of the agricultural tribes had settled in towns and built walls for protection from the desert wanderers. The most important cities at this time were Mecca and Medina. Both of these towns were situated along the caravan routes, and were trading centers. Here the caravans, laden with goods from the Red Sea and the southland, exchanged their products or relayed them to Greece, Rome, and other countries.

Religion of the Arabs. Of the two cities Mecca was the larger and more important. To the Arabs its importance

was due not so much to its trade as to the fact that it was their religious center. In Mecca was situated the Kaaba (cube), a temple shaped like a cube. The cornerstone of this sanctuary was a black meteorite. Tradition had it that this stone had been given to Abraham by an angel. The Arabs considered it a god, the protector of all the tribal gods of Arabia. This shows us that these Arabians were polytheists (worshippers of many gods) and idolators.



THE KAABA, MECCA

Pilgrims from all the Mohammedan world visit the Kaaba. It is their custom, after walking around the shrine seven times, to kiss the black stone in the corner of the building. A black cloth, such as you see in the picture, is sent each year by the Egyptian government to cover the Kaaba. Pieces from the old cover are sold to the pilgrims.

Pilgrimage to Mecca. Every year all Arabs recognized a four months' truce. During this period the Bedouin tribes ceased fighting, the settled Arabs felt safe, and feuds were dropped. Mecca was filled with Arab pilgrims at this time, paying their respect to the Kaaba with its more than three hundred idols. The city was crowded with Jewish, Christian, and Arabian merchants, all doing a rushing business; for this was also a period of trade. The caravan routes were

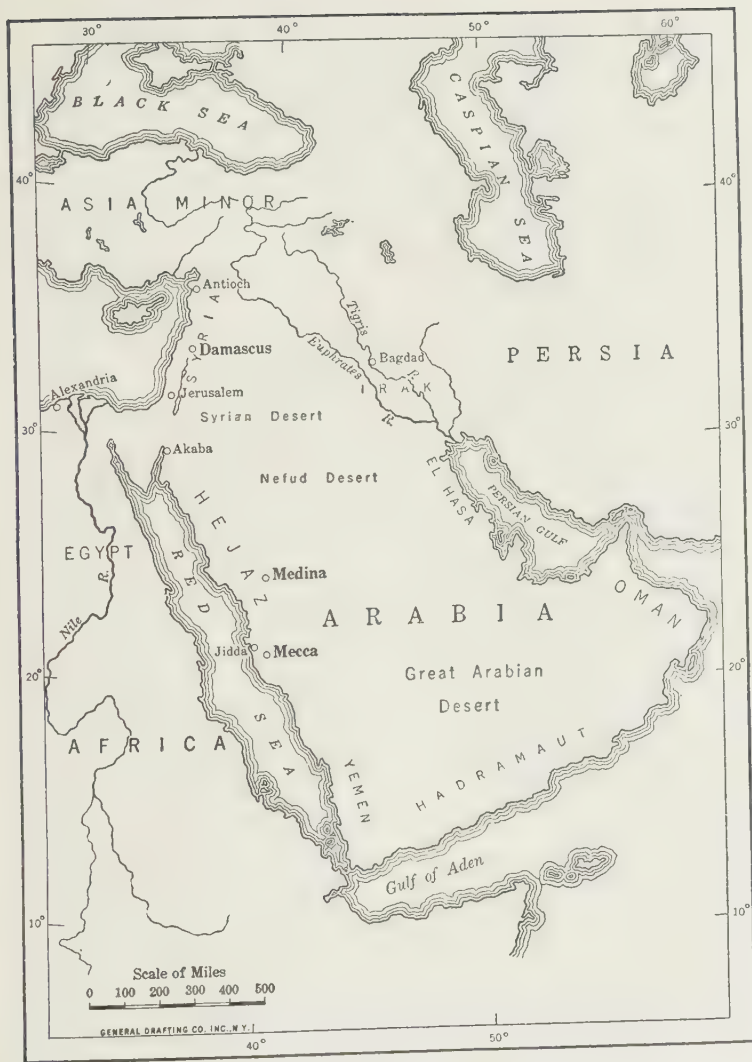
safer and the pilgrims and Bedouin tribes did most of their buying and exchanging for the whole year. The hotels, markets, and places of amusement were crowded. Prizes were offered for the best songs and poems concerning Arabian life and war. The sheiks and chief poets acted as judges, and the prize-winning songs were sung throughout Arabia, while their authors were highly honored.

Monotheism Among the Arabs. This was the general condition of the Arabs and of their chief city Mecca. But the Jews, Christians, and Persians had their influence on these Saracens. The idea of one God (monotheism) was no new doctrine to them when Mohammed appeared as the prophet of Allah.

Birth of Mohammed, 570. Mohammed (mô-hăm'ëd), or Mahomet (ma-höm'ët), was born at Mecca about 570. According to tradition he was an Ishmaelite, that is, descended from Ishmael, the son of Abraham and Hagar. It is interesting to notice the old Hebrew characters in the story of Mohammedanism. Mohammed's father, although poor, belonged to the influential tribe known as the Koreish (kô-râsh'). This tribe had settled permanently in Mecca, and had assumed the responsibility of protecting the Kaaba. They enjoyed many privileges about the temple. They controlled all trade concessions, and reaped large profits from the pilgrims.

His Marriage. Mohammed's parents died when he was very young and he went to live with an uncle. His early life was spent as a shepherd boy. At the age of twenty-five he was hired by a wealthy widow as a camel driver in one of her caravans. His journeys brought him into contact with many new people and places, but he still remained poor. Poverty was overcome when his employer, Kadija, fell in love with him and married him.

Mohammed's Vision. Mohammed now occupied a respected position in Mecca. He had become by his marriage an influential merchant. With no financial worries he gave himself up to meditation and thought. He spent days in the desert or wilderness alone, pondering over the religious beliefs of the Jews and the Christians. One day, he claimed, while he was meditating in one of these out-of-the-way places,



ARABIA
Showing the cities of Mecca and Medina.

the archangel Gabriel appeared before him and said, "There is but one God and Mohammed is his Prophet."

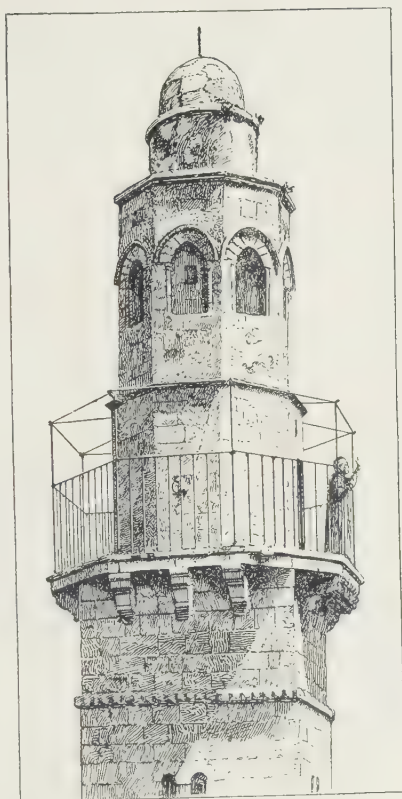
The Hegira, 622. He went home and told Kadija of his experience. She believed in him and was his first convert. His children and a few of his friends were next converted, and this so encouraged Mohammed that he started to preach in public. He attacked the worship of idols and told of a paradise for those only who believed in the one God, Allah. This was too much for the Koreish. They had no particular objection to his religion, as such, for they were familiar with the "one God" creed of Christian and Jew; but Mohammed endangered their business interests when he tried to put an end to the Arabian idol worship. The tribe rose against him; and he and his followers—known as Moslems, from the Arabic "Muslim," one who surrenders—fled to Medina, in 622. This is known as the Hegira (flight). The year of the Prophet's flight is used by the Mohammedans in reckoning their time, in the same way that the Christians use the birth of Christ.

Conquest of Arabia. At Medina, Mohammed and his followers were welcomed. Men began to listen to him with interest, and he soon had a large following. He conquered and converted the desert tribes and organized a small army. He was made chief magistrate of Medina and wielded a great deal of power in this city. Ten years later he conquered Mecca, and most of the Arab idol worshipers discarded their old religions and accepted him as their prophet. Mohammed was now master of all Arabia; but before he could get his conquests and people well organized he died, and was buried at Medina.

The Koran. The religion of Mohammed is known as Islam (surrender) and the Koran is its sacred book. The Koran contains the speeches, sayings, and advice of Mohammed, all of which were written by his followers, for he himself wrote nothing. There are one hundred and fourteen chapters in the Koran, and from this book we get the gist of the Mohammedan religion.

Islam. Mohammed forbade his followers to make images, to gamble, to eat pork, or to drink wine. He recognized polygamy, but an Arab could possess only four legitimate wives. Every Moslem had to recite, once in his life at least,

the Moslem Creed, "There is no God but Allah and Mohammed is the Prophet of Allah." Five times daily the Moslem must face toward Mecca and pray. The fast of the Ramadan, which is observed the ninth month of the Mohammedan year, must be kept by all. The Moslem, if possible, must make at least one pilgrimage during his life to Mecca. The heaven of the Koran is a place of great beauty, and is inhabited by beautiful maidens. Its description is especially appealing to the Saracens. Hell is a place of excessive torment for unbelievers. Islam has its good points and its bad points, but taken as a whole it was far better than the old Arab polytheistic practice. Islam recognizes as prophets, Abraham, Moses, and Jesus; but considers Mohammed the last and greatest of all the prophets.



MINARET

Muezzin calling the faithful to prayer from a minaret.

Mohammedan Conquests. The spread of Christianity was a slow process, accomplished by peaceful methods. The spread of Islam was rapid, and accomplished by means of the sword. The Moslem was taught to wage war against all unbelievers; he was to share the spoils of battle; and if he died in any of these Holy Wars his sins were forgiven and he immediately entered paradise. With these teachings the Mohammedans became a formidable army of conquerors.

Within a century after the death of their prophet they had conquered Persia, Syria, Egypt, and North Africa. For years they hammered at the gates of Constantinople, but the city was able to hold out. Antioch, Jerusalem, Damascus, and Alexandria, however, fell before the conquering Moslems.



AN ISLAM MOSQUE

The mosque of Sultan Ahmed in Stamboul.

Grant of Political Rights. The conquered people were not forced to accept Mohammedanism. Christianity was tolerated, and only those who refused to accept the teachings of the Koran were forced to pay tribute. As soon as any people who had come under their sway accepted the Mohammedan faith they were granted the same political rights that the Moslems enjoyed.

Civilization of the Arabs. The Arabs absorbed and improved the civilizations with which they came in contact. They translated the Greek writings into their own language. They were intensely interested in philosophy, science (particularly medicine), mathematics, and literature. They

learned much from the Orient concerning these things and compared them all with western ideas. Their imposing architecture is a monument to their artistic natures; while the Arabic numerals, brought from India, testify to their skill in mathematics. As Islam spread, commercial enterprises grew. Trade sprang up with India and with far away Korea and Japan.

Conquest of Spain. After the conquest of North Africa the Caliphs (kā'lifz), successors of Mohammed, decided on the conquest of Spain, and soon the entire peninsula was overrun. The Visigoths' kingdom was destroyed and many inhabitants were killed. Some of the Goths fled to the mountains, where they and their descendants kept up an intermittent warfare until 1492. Most of the Goths fled across the Pyrenees into France. The Moslems in Spain organized their government, built beautiful mosques (temples), and then prepared for new conquests. In one hundred years they had extended their sway over more territory than any Alexander or Cæsar. Their conquests formed a vast crescent, which was gradually encircling western Europe. When at last they prepared for a great attack on Gaul (France) the Franks stood ready, under Charles Martel.

Battle of Tours, 732. The vast army of Islam pushed northward, and one October morning in 732 the opposing forces met at Tours. The far-famed Arabian cavalry charged: the German foot soldiers, in armor and with spears, met the onrush. All day long the battle raged, and at sunset thousands of warriors on both sides lay dead. The next morning Martel prepared to resume the conflict, but the Moslems had retreated into southern Gaul and Spain.

Commenting on the importance of this battle, Thorndike says: "So if the Arabs had defeated Charles Martel and the Franks, whose kingdoms were eventually to go to smash anyway, and if they had overrun western Europe as they did the Spanish peninsula, European civilization might have revived the more quickly. But in that case the Papacy would probably never have made its momentous alliance with Charles Martel's son . . . and the whole course of European history would be different."

Emerton, another authority, says: "The importance of the



MOHAMMEDAN POSSESSIONS AFTER THE BATTLE OF TOURS

battle of Tours can hardly be overestimated. . . . We may well imagine that the Arabs, if they had conquered at Tours, might have done for Gaul what they did for Spain, have made it into the seat of a great Semitic culture. That they did not do this, that Europe became Christian and not Mohammedan, Aryan and not Semitic, is the debt we owe to these iron warriors who beat back the wave of Arab conquest on the field of Tours."

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Compare the organization of the early Church—its patriarchates, archbishoprics, bishoprics—with that of the Roman Empire.
2. To people in what various occupations would monastery life appeal? Why? Write an imaginary interview with three persons in which they tell of their reasons for entering a monastery during this period.
3. What were the achievements of Leo the Great that added to the strength of the Papacy? Of Gregory the Great?
4. How did Mecca and the Korish resemble Jerusalem and the Sadducees?
5. Show how the Arab conquests of Antioch, Jerusalem, and Egypt affected the power of the Popes in Rome.
6. What effect did the Mohammedan trade with Japan have upon Europe?
7. Distinguish between a caliphate and a patriarchate.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Read portions of Washington Irving's *The Alhambra* for a good description of Moslem architecture, and also for Arabian legends. See his *Conquest of Granada* for the history of this and later periods.

II. Report on (1) Confucius, the moral teacher of China, and (2) Buddha, the religious teacher of India. H. G. Wells in his *Outline of History* has two very interesting chapters on the lives of these men.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

EMERTON	<i>Introduction to the Middle Ages</i>	Ginn
THORNDIKE	<i>History of Medieval Europe</i>	Houghton
ADAMS	<i>Civilization During the Middle Ages</i>	Scribner
OGG	<i>Source Book of Medieval History</i>	American Book

HISTORICAL NOVEL

DAVIS	<i>Beauty of the Purple</i> (A Romance centering around the life of Leo the Isaurian)	Macmillan
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CHAPTER XIII

CHARLEMAGNE AND HIS TIMES

Martel's Task after Tours. During the last years of his life Charles Martel was the sole ruler of the Franks, a King in everything but name. As a soldier he was forced time and again to defend the southern borders from the numerous incursions of the Saracens, a power still to be reckoned with despite their defeat at Tours. When not in the south this energetic semi-barbarian warrior was marching northward, where it required all of his military and political ingenuity to maintain peace with his northern and western neighbors.

The Pope Appeals to Martel for Aid. The Pope appealed to Martel for aid against the Lombards, who had remained a thorn to the papal power for more than a half century. Charles had no quarrel with the Pope, but he refused to give him any military support. The ruler of the Lombards was a brother-in-law of the great Frank, and his firm ally in the wars against the Arabs. The quarrel between the Pope and the Lombard King was made less bitter, however, because of the intercession of Charles, the friend of both.

The Monasteries and Their Claims. Martel was a champion of the Christian missionaries, and defended these apostles whenever and wherever needed. Further, as Hodgkin says, "To him is it due that the Muezzin [Mohammedan crier] is not at noon today calling the faithful to prayer from some high minaret [tower attached to a mosque] by the Seine." And yet, if you read the records of histories of the monks concerning this man you will find him one of the most criticized persons of his time. The reason for this was the action taken by Martel against the monasteries. These places had become exceedingly wealthy, especially in Gaul. The abbots controlled vast tracts of land, erected palatial buildings, and claimed that neither bishops nor political rulers had any power over them. Thus the abbots were becoming independent sovereigns, some going so far as to maintain soldiers for defense.

Martel's Plan for Raising Revenue. The church and Charles Martel looked with disfavor upon the attitude of these abbots. The Papacy was powerless, but Martel acted. He claimed that the revenue he needed for the defense of western Europe was seriously diminished by the money and lands poured in upon the monasteries. Charles did not tax the abbots, but he confiscated some of the Church property and established new monasteries; and over both the old and the new abbeys he appointed his nobles, regardless of their religious qualifications. The new officials would give him all the wealth required for the upkeep of his government. If they refused they lost their jobs.



CHARLES MARTEL (the "Hammer")

After the battle of Tours Charles Martel became the sole ruler of the Franks. He was kept busy defending his southern borders from the continued incursions of the Saracens, and his northern and western frontiers from other enemies.

Karlmann and Pippin. In the midst of one of his campaigns Charles Martel sickened, and a year later he died. He was censured by the monks, but was loved and esteemed by his warriors. The Franks agreed to the succession of his two sons, Karlman and Pippin, as Mayors of the Palace. Karlmann acted as Major Domus of Austrasia, and Pippin

held the same office in Neustria. These sons immediately acknowledged a Merovingian as King, and in so doing did away with any suspicion that they were trying to usurp kingly power.

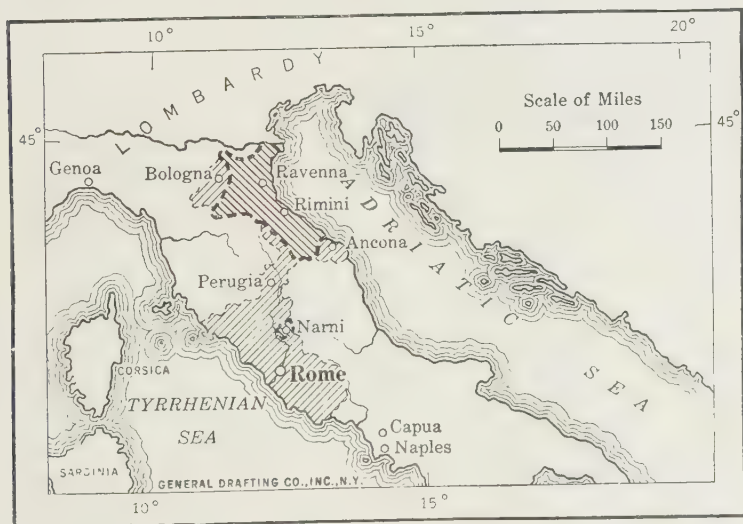
Pippin Sole Ruler. Karlmann soon gave up his office as Major Domus of Austrasia and entered a monastery. Pippin now took full charge of both his own and his brother's territory, and wielded as much power as his father had before him. In fact, Pippin was the real ruler of Gaul and western Germany; and he felt that the time was now ripe to assert his claim as King.

Pippin King of the Franks, 752. Two ambassadors were sent to Pope Zacharias at Rome for his decision upon the following question: Who should be the King of the Franks, he who is called King but exercises no power, or he who exercises the power but does not hold the title? Zacharias, seeing a chance to gain a strong ally for the Papacy, replied that the one who had the power should be King. The Pope then ordered archbishop Boniface (apostle to the Germans) to anoint Pippin King of the Franks. The ceremony took place at Soissons, in 752. All the Franks and their subjects were commanded by the Pope to acknowledge Pippin as King. The Merovingian King, Childrich, was sent to a monastery.

Divine Right of Kings. The ancient custom of the Franks, that of choosing their own King, thus slipped from their grasp. From now on, their rulers considered themselves "Kings by the grace of God." It was to take a mighty struggle, a thousand years later, to undo the work begun by Pope Zacharias and King Pippin, to discredit forever this "divine right of kings" theory, and to put an end to the idea that it was a religious duty to obey a privileged mortal. We shall meet it later in our story.

Pippin's Donation to the Papacy. Pippin did all in his power to repay the Pope. Much of the church land taken by Martel was returned. The Frankish monasteries were cleansed of their corruption. New and better appointments were made—but by the King, and not by the Pope. Finally, on an appeal from Rome, Pippin marched into Italy, subdued the Lombards, and regained all the Italian lands that had

been conquered by those people. As soon as the Eastern Emperor heard of Pippin's conquest he demanded that he turn these lands over to him. Rome and Italy were still considered a part of the old Roman Empire. Pippin sent back word to the Emperor that his conquest was made in the interest of the Church, and that he would give the lands to St. Peter. Pippin was as good as his word. The Pope received territory along the Adriatic as far north as Ravenna, and lands north and south of Rome. In this manner the Papal States were formed, which were to play an important part in later Italian history.



THE PAPAL STATES

Charles and Carloman. On Pippin's death the Frankish kingdom was again divided. To Charles, the elder of Pippin's two sons, were given the lands which were most Germanic; while Carloman (Karlmann) received the possessions which had been influenced by the Roman and Gallic civilizations. Fortunately for the Franks, the early death of Carloman reunited the two kingdoms under a powerful personality, Charlemagne, or Charles the Great.



CHARLEMAGNE

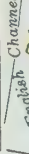
Charlemagne. Charlemagne reigned for over fifty years. He became, like his father, the friend of the Papacy. He renewed the donations of Pippin to St. Peter. He conquered the Saracens in southern Gaul, drove them beyond the Pyrenees, and took possession of the northeastern part of the Spanish peninsula. He realized that the strength of his possessions lay in conquering the barbarians to the north, and much of his time was taken up with wars against the Saxons,

the Slavs, and the Bavarians. He is said to have had 4,500 Saxons beheaded in one day.

His Government. Charlemagne held his conquests, and governed the people with a strong hand. He divided his territories into counties, or marks, and placed an officer over each called a count, or marquis. The counts acted as judges, and in addition had charge of the military affairs of their districts. These counts wielded a great deal of power; and because of the wide areas over which some of them ruled, special agents called *missi dominici* (lord's messengers) were appointed. The messengers usually traveled in pairs, a noble and a bishop. It was their duty to visit and investigate conditions in the marks, and report to the King.

His Interest in Education. The barbarian invasions had arrested Roman literature, art, and science. Charlemagne did everything in his power to revive this dying interest. The monasteries and cathedrals were used as schools. Their advantages were open to clergy and common people alike. Charlemagne surrounded his court with learned men from all parts of the western world. He kept up a correspondence

AFTER THE TREATY OF VERDUN



with the Mohammedan rulers (Caliphs) of the East. He visited and examined the schools of his own kingdom.

Leo III. When Leo III was elected Pope he immediately sent the keys of St. Peter's grave and other tokens to Charlemagne. By doing this he acknowledged his homage and fidelity to the Frankish King. Charlemagne had received the title of Patrician (protector) of Rome after his conquest and donation of the Lombard lands to the Papacy.

Charlemagne Crowned Emperor of the Romans, 800. Many of the officials of the Church in Rome, who at this time elected the Popes, disputed Leo's right to hold this office because of his corrupt character. He was even waylaid and beaten by his enemies. Thereupon, Leo appealed to Charlemagne to come over into Italy and settle the dispute. The King of the Franks came, and decided the controversy in favor of Leo. The Pope showed his appreciation a few days later. On Christmas Day in the year 800 Charlemagne, dressed in the princely robes of the old Roman patricians, attended St. Peter's Church where Leo was holding mass. As the King knelt in prayer the Pope placed upon his head a golden crown, and proclaimed Charlemagne "Charles Augustus, Emperor of the Romans."

Everyone seemed pleased. The dignity and prestige of the Imperial title would awe his subjects, and this appealed to the vanity of Charlemagne. The Pope felt that now he had a powerful protector, while the people at Rome rejoiced in the returning glory of Imperial Rome. The Empire of the West had, by this act, completely severed its relationship with Constantinople.

Oaths of Allegiance. Charlemagne now demanded an oath of allegiance from every man in the Empire. This was accomplished by having the counts represent all of the freemen in their districts. That is, when a count swore allegiance to the Emperor it meant that all the men in his mark did the same. Further, every year there was an assembly of the freemen to discuss important matters of state; and thus we see that Charlemagne, although exercising great influence, did not develop into a tyrant.

Interpretation of Charlemagne. As with all strong personalities, there are many conflicting stories and interpreta-

tions of the life and character of Charlemagne. Some historians hold that he was one of the greatest men of all times; others feel that he simply benefited by the work of his grandfather, Martel, and his father, Pippin, and that he was hardly the equal of either. But when we consider the times, and the people with whom he had to deal, we can rightfully say that no mediocre man could have accomplished what he did.

Weakness of Charlemagne's Successors. Charlemagne died in 814, at Aachen (Aix-la-Chapelle) in Germany. His son Louis, called the Pious, succeeded him but was unable to control such a large territory or so unruly a people. The weakness of the Frankish law of succession is manifested again when, on the death of Louis, his three sons fought for possession of the Empire. The nobles joined one and then another of the contending parties, and thousands lost their lives in the foolish struggle.

Treaty of Verdun, 843. In 843, by the Treaty of Verdun, the brothers ceased fighting and divided the Empire as follows: Louis received the land east of the Rhine—later, Germany; Charles was assigned the territory west of the Rhone—later, France; while to Lothair (lô-thâr') was given a "buffer" strip between the two, extending from the North Sea to the Mediterranean, and represented by the present small countries of Holland, Belgium, Switzerland, and Italy. These divisions were marked by differences in customs and in language. In the West Frankish kingdom a Latin dialect was spoken which was to become modern French—known for this reason as a Romance language. In the East Frankish kingdom, among those Germanic and Slavic tribes where Latin had influenced the people to no great extent, the old mother tongue was to predominate.

Charlemagne's Empire in the Ninth and Tenth Centuries. By the tenth century the Empire of Charlemagne was shattered, for none of his successors could hold it together. The Mohammedans gained control of the island of Sicily and made repeated invasions into northern France and Italy. The Slavs on the east were a continual menace, and the Hungarians from Asia were only driven back into their present country, Hungary, after a hard struggle. The Northmen, those bold vikings or Scandinavian pirates, overran

eastern and western Europe as well as England. They robbed the monasteries and towns, they killed and enslaved the inhabitants, and their name became a terror in every household. The Northmen, under their leader Rollo, were given land in Northwestern Gaul, later called Normandy. By this means, it was hoped, they would be induced to settle down and keep the peace. In England the Danes, another tribe of Northmen, exacted tribute and for a while ruled a large part of the country.

Revival of the Holy Roman Empire, 962. About the middle of the tenth century Otto the Great, a Saxon, was able to conquer the numerous independent countries and dukedoms into which the East Frankish kingdom of Charlemagne's Empire had been broken up. In recognition of this fact, in 962 he was crowned by the Pope Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire. Thus the Empire of Charlemagne was revived. This included sovereignty over Italy, and was to cause a great deal of trouble for the German rulers during the next two centuries.

Hugh Capet. In the West Frankish kingdom, about the same time, the last Carolingian (kār'ō-līn'jī-ăn) ruler was replaced by Hugh Capet (kā'pět), founder of the Capetian dynasty. Most of the nobles in his kingdom, however, were as powerful as Capet, and especially the Duke of Normandy. It was to take many generations to build up an absolute monarchy in France.

Westward Migrations Continue. The tenth century marked the end of what we have called the Age of Fusion. We must not get the impression by this statement, however, that there has been no more fusion in world progress; it has been going on right down to the present time. From the fifteenth century on, the descendants of these same Romans, Greeks, Barbarians, Semites, and Christians moved westward again,—this time over the broad expanse of the Atlantic Ocean, under all kinds of conditions, and for sundry reasons. They built a great nation—our own—which, because of the fusion, has been called the “melting pot” of the world.

Dawn of Feudalism. But the period just studied was the time when this process of fusion was the most intense in World History, the time when it overshadowed all other

movements. The age that followed was one of disorder, lawlessness, and confusion, with no Charlemagne to guide and govern. However, in place of a strong centralized government in the various countries, there gradually grew up an institution known as Feudalism. This will characterize and name our next Epoch.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Why did Charles Martel refuse to aid the Pope, while Pippin and Charlemagne both came to his rescue?
2. Were the monkish scribes justified in their criticism of Charles Martel? Give reasons for your answer.
3. What is the method of securing government revenue in the United States today? Do we use our revenue in the same way that Martel used his?
4. What was the weak point in the order of succession among the Franks? Explain.
5. What countries in Europe today have Romance languages?
6. Sum up the political achievements of Charlemagne. What is your personal opinion of him?
7. Give three reasons why the Pope conferred the title of Emperor upon Charlemagne.
8. Compare Charlemagne with Otto the Great.
9. What invaders other than the Northmen of the tenth century have we already met?
10. Distinguish the following: (a) Charles Martel, (b) Pippin, (c) Charlemagne, (d) Otto the Great, (e) Hugh Capet.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. After Charlemagne's conquest of the Spanish Mark, while he was returning home through the pass of Roncevalles, between the Ebro and the Pyrenees, his rear guard was attacked by the enemy. In the fight that ensued Roland, Count of Brittany, was killed. The subjects of Roland, as well as his overlord, Charlemagne, deeply mourned the loss of this popular hero. Around the name of Roland there clustered many legends, graphically portrayed in the *Ballad of Roland*.

The stories of Roland are delightful reading, and while legendary, they give a vivid picture of the life of those times. A very interesting and well spent period can be spent in making reports on this subject, if portions of *The Story of Roland*, by Baldwin (Scribner), are used as references.

II. Among the most interesting people of this period are the Northmen, and the part these old vikings played in the emergence of the early European nations is of great importance. Reports from Johnson's *The Normans in Europe* will be a great help in making clear some of the later European history.

III. The following numbers found in Davis' *Readings in Ancient History* will prove helpful in connection with the Merovingian period: No. 134, How Men Made a Living, Frankland; No. 135, Usages of the Church; No. 139, Laws of the Barbarian; No. 140, Passages from the Koran; Nos. 141, 142, Saracen Opinions of the Battle of Tours; No. 143, Bagdad under the Abbaside Caliphs; No. 146, Personal Traits of Charlemagne.

IV. Report on the lives of Charlemagne and the Caliph Harun-Al-Rashid. Reference: Haaren and Poland, *Famous Men of the Middle Ages*.

V. How is the Pope elected now? How is our own country represented in the election?

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

OGG	<i>Sources of Medieval History</i>	American Book
EMERTON	<i>Introduction to the Middle Ages</i>	Ginn
THORNDIKE	<i>History of Medieval Europe</i>	Houghton

HISTORICAL NOVEL

HARDY	<i>Passe Rose</i> (Franks and Saxons of Charlemagne's times)	Houghton
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EPOCH FOUR

FEUDALISM

Looking back over the chief events of Epoch Three, we see the gradual decay of the Roman Empire, the growth and expansion of Christianity, and the barbarian invasions. We see how these illiterate but vigorous tribes settle on Roman territory; how they accept Christianity; how they intermarry with the Romans and adopt to some extent their language and customs. We discover that the blending of those peoples gives rise to new nations able to withstand the Saracen invasions. We witness the rise of a great ruler in the person of Charlemagne, who governs and holds in check those restless and semi-barbarous peoples.

For several hundred years after the death of Charlemagne the torch of civilization in western Europe burns so low that historians often call that period in history the "Dark Ages." It is an age of lawlessness, disorder, and confusion. In the absence of any strong central authority in any one country, the political, economic, and social life of the people is controlled by large landholders. These landholders—lords or nobles—are subject to their respective kings in name only. A peculiar form of government known as Feudalism takes root, even before Charlemagne's time, and is the dominating force in the lives of the people from the ninth to the fourteenth century. The present Epoch will tell of the great events of those years and how the whole Western world, Church and State alike, became a part of the feudal system.

CHAPTER XIV

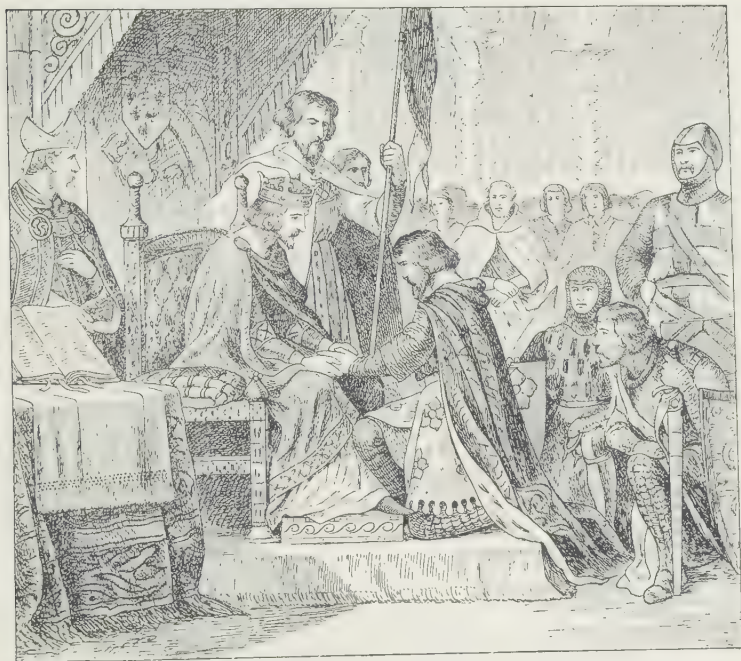
THE EMERGENCE OF ENGLAND

The Problem of Epoch Four. The great problem that faced the people of western Europe from the ninth to the fourteenth century was how to bring order out of chaos.

Western Europe, Ninth to Fourteenth Century. The death of Charlemagne was followed by years of insecurity. While kings, princes, nobles, and clergy fought for thrones and power, the common people, as always, were the victims of the disorder that resulted. Churches and monasteries, under ambitious leaders, were principally concerned with accumulating worldly goods. Schools had almost ceased to function. In town and country alike, there was little protection. Life and property were constantly in danger, due to the absence of a strong central power; while lack of sanitary precautions produced disease and pestilence. Trade and commerce on land and sea were subject to brigandage and piracy. Peasants who cultivated their fields were fortunate to be able to gather their crops. Food became scarce, and therefore high in price.

Feudalism. In order to offset these common dangers during this period of confusion and disorder, kings parceled out their land to nobles, whose duty it became to protect those districts. The nobles built strong castles on high cliffs or other points of vantage, surrounded these castles with walls and moats, and maintained soldiers for defense. Monasteries were fortified and a standing army kept to protect the lands and people within. The common people sought refuge and protection either in the monasteries or on the lands of some strong noble. Gradually people became accustomed to this condition of affairs, and a new way of living was developed known as Feudalism.

Feudalism did not take a strong hold on England until the



DOING HOMAGE

When a lord conferred a fief upon a vassal the procedure was marked by this very important and solemn ceremony known as homage. With bared head the vassal knelt and placed his hands between those of his lord. He took an oath of allegiance, swearing to serve his suzerain in all things, even unto death.

Norman conquest of that country in 1066 A.D. It is impossible to appreciate that event, however, until we learn something of the early history of the English people.

Druidism. When Julius Cæsar invaded Britain there was in that country an influential and well organized priesthood called the Druids. These men spent much of their time in the study and worship of the stars, the moon, and the sun. They instructed the youth of the land, Cæsar says, "in the nature of things and the might and power of the immortal gods." The Druids erected their altars in the dark, gloomy forests, the mistletoe and the oak were worshiped; and human sac-

rifices, especially of criminals, were offered to appease the gods. The power of life and death wielded by the Druids did much to control the lawlessness of the more unruly people. The Druids believed in a life after death, and in the immortality of the soul; and the warrior's battle equipment was buried with him, as well as food, drink, and dishes. The dead were buried in long mounds, some of which were more than 800 feet in length.

The Celts. Druidism was the religion of the Celtic tribes who overran and occupied Britain about 500 B.C. The Celts were an Indo-European people from central and western Europe. They were tall and fair skinned, strong and brave. They lived in tribes, governed by their chiefs and subject to tribal law, in much the same way as the Germanic tribes described in Chapter XI.

Their Homes. These tribes lived a settled life. They built houses of wood, circular in form, with pointed roofs covered with reeds. There was an opening in the roof to let out the smoke and also to admit light. The cracks and crevices were filled in with clay. Around the many homes which comprised a village a deep ditch was dug to protect the inhabitants from invaders. Along the ditch high mounds of earth were constructed, and on top of the mounds strong palisades were built from the trees of the forest.

Their Economic Life. The Celts domesticated sheep and cattle, tilled the fields, raised grain and vegetables, and built store houses under ground in order to provide themselves with food during the long winter months. They made woollen cloths, and were skilled in the art of working gold, especially in fashioning necklaces and bracelets. Mining was an important occupation of the people in the south, while along the seacoast trade became more and more active. The merchants of Rome and Greece bartered for the tin ore of Britain, which was in great demand among all Mediterranean people. Besides these peaceful occupations the Celts, like all barbarian tribes, kept up an almost continuous warfare among themselves.

Why Britain was not Latinized. Thus we get a brief glance at the people who occupied Britain at the time of Cæsar's first invasion. The Britons were defeated by the

Romans but not Latinized, as the barbarians on the continent had been. The wild Celtic tribes, with their love of freedom, were hard to tame or conquer. Moreover, the insular position of Britain, separated from the continent by the English Channel, made it impossible to transport large bodies of troops. The Roman invasions were for this reason conducted with small numbers of men, and not with numerous legions as was the case in Gaul.

London. It took almost a century after the time of Julius Cæsar for the Romans to gain even a foothold in Britain. Under the Emperor Claudius the southeastern part of the island was occupied by the Imperial troops. One Celtic village after another was taken. Many of the inhabitants were killed or carried to Rome as hostages, while others fled into the interior. Near where the Thames River empties into the sea, at the widest part of the river, there was a small village with its circular huts, dirty, ill smelling, and unventilated, surrounded by a stagnant, unsanitary ditch. This community was called Llyn-din (Fort-on-the-Lake). The Romans had a hard time pronouncing the name after they captured the town, and Llyn-din came to be called London—a city destined to rival and even to surpass Imperial Rome.

Roman Influence in Britain. We have already noticed the influence of the Roman occupation of Britain, the provincial government that was established, the Roman roads that were built, the walls that were erected as barriers against the northern tribes, the gradual decay of the Empire, and the recall of the Roman legions. The Romans had cleared and cultivated the soil, built towns, and brought their civilization with them. But the native Britons who did not serve in the legions were as a rule enslaved, and forced to work in the mines and quarries or to till the fields for Roman tyrants. Galgacus, chief of the North Britons, said of the Romans, "They make a desert and call it peace." No wonder that in less than one hundred years after the recall of the legions nothing of the political or social structure of Rome was left. Only a few Roman words, and the walls, forts, tombs, and roads remained.

Christianity in Britain. Christianity found its way among the Britons as early as the second century. Little atten-



A ROMAN BATH
An evidence of early Roman occupation, in Bath, England.

tion was paid to it by the Roman governors, and it gradually gained a hearing among the natives. During the persecutions of Diocletian, in the third century, many of these Christians were cruelly put to death as was the case throughout the Roman world.

The Picts and Scots. The Romans were never able to gain possession of the country to the north and northwest, the land we know today as Scotland. This territory was occupied by those wild, freedom-loving Celts, the Picts and Scots. The Hadrian Wall in Britain is evidence enough of Rome's respect for the fighting qualities of these tribes.

The Britons. The Britons were finally subdued, although it was a hard task for the Romans. Three hundred years of tyranny had broken the spirit and weakened the physical prowess of these once sturdy people. The recall of the Roman legions, after Alaric had broken the Rhine-Danube frontier and opened the gates of the Great Enclosure, left the Britons defenseless against the attacks of the Picts and Scots.

Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. Added to this were the continual attacks on the east by the Jutes, the Saxons, and the Angles. They came from Denmark and the country to the south of it. While the Goths and Huns turned southward into the rich valley of the Po, the Saxons moved westward across the English Channel, seeking land and homes in the country vacated by Roman soldiers and citizens.

Conquest of England. The Jutes promised to protect the Britons from the Picts and Scots, and they fulfilled their promise. For their services, however, they seized and occupied the district on the southeastern coast known as Kent. The Saxons witnessed the apparent ease of this brigandage of the Jutes and seized portions of the land in the south, in the west, and around the Thames River. This was called Sussex, Wessex, Essex, and Middlesex; or the land of the South, West, East, and Middle Saxons. The Angles arrived from Denmark in the sixth century, and took possession of all the territory in eastern Britain not already occupied. This was organized into two provinces, known as Northumbria and Mercia. In time the whole country took its name from one of these tribes, and was called England (Angle-land).

The Saxon Heptarchy. It was these Angles, Saxons, and Jutes who were converted by St. Augustine, in the latter part of the sixth century. It was these Angles whom Pope Gregory had seen in the slave market at Rome. And Christianity was becoming the one bond between these warring forces. Northum'bria was the first to gain supremacy, then Mercia (mûr'shî-â), and finally Wessex. It was not until the ninth century, however, that we hear of the political strength of the kingdom of Wessex. Its King, Egbert, had been elected by the Witenagemot (wīt'ě-nâ-gě-mot') (Meeting of the Wise Men), a council of the nobles. By 828 Egbert had overcome the opposition of the other kingdoms, and ventured to assume the title of "King of the English by the Grace of God." Thus was established the Saxon Heptarchy (seven kingdoms) which marks the beginning of unity and nationality for England.

The Danes in England. About thirty years after the death of Egbert the Danes conquered and occupied the northern kingdoms of Northumbria, Mercia, and East Anglia. These Danish invasions destroyed the unity of the English people that, as we have just seen, had made a beginning under Egbert's rule. The Danes were from the Scandinavian peninsula, and were of the same stock as those who had left their homes in the northland in the eighth century and had pillaged and occupied the lands of western Europe, and even threatened the city of Constantinople.

Why the Northmen Left Their Scandinavian Homes. It is necessary to stop here and get a glimpse of these old vikings who played such an important part in the history of practically every great European country. In reading the old Sagas we learn that about the eighth century there was much rivalry and discord among the tribes of Scandinavia. Much of the soil was barren, and the fertile soil became the prize for which different chiefs fought. The unsuccessful leaders refused to acknowledge the authority of the victors, so they gathered their followers together and took to the sea. They became pirates, and soon the seas were infested with these robbers, who were unable to get a living in their own overpopulated and unproductive country.

Dress of the Northmen. A picture of these old viking warriors presents the men dressed in long hose and high

shoes, with thongs wrapped around the ankles. A short gown tied at the waist served as a protection for the legs above the knees, as well as for the body. For extreme weather an armless cloak of woolen homespun, in gaudy colors of gray, blue, or red, was worn. The broad brimmed hat completed this peacetime makeup. In war the Northmen wore helmets and shirts of mail. They carried long heavy shields for protection, and iron pointed spears and swords for offense. The women wore homespun gowns, with a girdle. The shoes and hose were of the same type as the men's, while their hats were as a rule high and pointed, and often bent at the top to resemble a horn.

Viking Ships. The ships of the vikings were galleys, equipped with sails and oars. The bow and stern of their ships were high, and carved and painted to resemble some horrible dragon or sea serpent. The bow became the head and the stern the tail of the terrifying monster. These sea rovers were a reality that disturbed the sleep of countless people in western Europe during the eighth and ninth centuries—the fearful looking ships riding the waves, with the old viking chief standing in the bow giving orders to his fearless followers to head for some shore that might offer a large booty.

Extent of Norman Invasion. In this manner these Northmen overran and occupied territory in Italy, Spain, France, Russia, England, Constantinople, Iceland, and Greenland. In Russia they established a kingdom, under Ruric, during the ninth century. In France they dropped their old customs and language and became French, under Rollo, in Normandy. In Iceland they established a republic governed by a representative body of nobles, who met in an assembly called the "Allthing." In Constantinople they were enlisted and used as the bodyguard of the Emperor. Here they enjoyed many privileges, and were known as the Varangian guard (bound by oath). They fought the Saracens in Syria and Egypt, thereby checking the fall of Constantinople. This gives us some idea of the extent of the Norman conquests when, towards the end of the ninth century, they met in England a man who proved a worthy foe, one of the greatest and most beloved of British rulers—Alfred the Great.



A VIKING SHIP

It was in such and larger craft that the vikings swept the seas, and left their name to all posterity as symbolic of strength, daring, and adventure.

Alfred the Great, 849-901. Alfred, who was the grandson of Egbert, was born in Wessex in 849. During his boyhood he was a great reader. He spent several years with his father in Rome. His stepmother was a great granddaughter of Charlemagne, and had been educated in the French courts. She was keenly interested in the education and training of

her stepson. Alfred became King of England in 871.

Alfred and the Danes.

The first year of his reign was spent in fighting the Danes, and though he fought nine battles he was unable to stop their advance; so the bold intruders spent the winter in London. Four years after Alfred became King he constructed a navy, the first in English history. He personally designed and patterned the war vessels, and then took his fleet up the Thames River and



ALFRED THE GREAT

defeated the Danes at their own game, relieving London of its unwelcome guests. The Danes were later reënforced by other Northmen, and then were joined by the Welsh. The West Saxon country was overrun, and Alfred was forced to leave his kingdom and seek refuge among the hills. Disguised as a swineherd, he was rebuked by one of his subjects, a peasant woman, for allowing some cakes that she was cooking to burn. He had been told to watch them, but his mind was on other things.

Defeat of the Danes. Alfred desired to assemble his nobles and make one last attempt to rid his country of the Danes. In the guise of a minstrel, he went into the very camp of the Northmen in order to find out their numbers and plans. He then got into communication with his vassals, collected an army, and defeated the Danes at Ed'ington, in the district of Stonehenge. The Danish leader sued for peace, and in addition accepted Christianity.

Treaty of Wedmore, 878. The peace treaty was made at Wedmore in 878. The Danes agreed to remain north and east of a line drawn from London to Chester. Alfred's kingdom included all the land south of the Thames and west of



ENGLAND AFTER THE TREATY OF WEDMORE
Showing Alfred's kingdom and the Danelaw.

the demarcation line, except Wales. The Danes possessed the greater amount of territory, now called the Danelaw; but Alfred was acknowledged by them as their overlord.

Alfred the Great: Lawgiver, Writer, Educator. Alfred was not only a great military leader, but as a lawgiver,

writer, educator, and promoter of civic pride he ranks among the foremost men in history. In the midst of his many wars he found time to have a code of laws written, in which the Ten Commandments and the Golden Rule were incorporated. He personally translated several books from the Latin into the Saxon language, and was partly responsible for the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, the first written history in any modern language.

From Alfred to Harold. A century after the death of Alfred, Canute (kâ-nūt'), a Danish King, conquered the island and made himself ruler of all England. The Danes were unable to hold the country very long, and the kingship reverted to the Saxons, under Edward the Confessor, who ruled until 1066. He was succeeded at his own request by Harold, a Saxon noble, who was also the choice of the Witan.

William, Duke of Normandy. When William, Duke of Normandy, heard that Harold had been chosen King of England, he immediately prepared for war. William was the grandson of Rollo, that old viking pirate who had been given the duchy of Normandy. William's claim to the English throne was based upon the alleged promise of Edward the Confessor, his cousin, to name him as the next King of England. Another story says that Harold the Saxon, who had been William's prisoner, promised to step aside for the Norman Duke if he was granted his freedom.

William Prepares to Conquer England. William's claim to the English throne was a flimsy one. The Witan alone had the power to name the King, although it often respected the wish of a dying monarch. All summer long William was busy building a fleet to transport his troops. He appealed to the Pope to sanction his expedition. The Pope consented, and this enabled the duke to enlist more soldiers in what appeared to be a religious war.



WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR EMBARKING
FOR ENGLAND

Taken from the Bayeux Tapestry woven by the King's wife and her ladies. It tells the story of the expedition.

In October, 1066, Harold the Saxon was called to the north of his kingdom to repel a Danish attack. The Danes were defeated at Stamford Bridge, and Harold was celebrating the victory at a great banquet when news reached him that William of Normandy had landed his troops on the southern shore.

The Battle of Hastings, 1066. The Saxon King hurried southward, calling for reinforcements from the north country. Few men rallied to his standard, and Harold arrived at Hastings with an army wearied by its long march and weakened by its hard fight at Stamford Bridge. William and his Normans attacked the Saxons. All day long the battle raged, with victory hanging in the balance. Toward sunset Harold was struck in the eye by an arrow and killed. The Saxons, without their brave leader, surrendered. Within a few years the Normans were masters of England, under their duke, who was now called William the Conqueror.

William Crowned King of England. William marched northward and besieged London. The city opened its gates to the Conqueror. In the City Hall of London there is preserved a charter given to the people of London at this time by William. In it they were guaranteed all the privileges they had enjoyed under the Saxon kings. On Christmas Day, 1066, William was anointed and crowned King of England at Westminster Abbey, that famous edifice which had just been completed by his cousin, Edward the Confessor.

William's Policy in England. The Conqueror proved a strong and efficient ruler. He retained the Witan. From those English nobles who had not fought against him at the battle of Hastings he took their lands, but returned them upon condition that they receive them back as fiefs from the new King. The lands of Harold, and of the nobles who had opposed him, William divided among his own followers. In the division of this land, William was very shrewd. Observation and experience on the Continent had taught him the folly of allowing any noble too much territory in any one place. Wherever this happened the nobles became as powerful as their kings. To avoid this the Conqueror gave his followers small portions of territory located in various parts of England. Under this system a noble found it diffi-

cult to rally his vassals from his scattered fiefs and attack his King. Moreover, William compelled every man to pay homage directly to him.

Counties Palatine. William made several exceptions to the above rule. In those remote districts in the north and west of England he gave large tracts of land called Counties Palatine. He vested the earls who ruled over these counties with almost kingly power, and their authority was made hereditary. This was done in order that the borders of the kingdom might be defended from invasion. The feudal government of the Palatinate of Durham, on the border of Scotland, became the basis of colonial government in several of the American colonies during the seventeenth century.

Domesday Book. In 1086 the Conqueror took a census of his kingdom, and had all the data compiled in what has been called the Domesday Book. He ascertained the amount of land, sheep, cattle, slaves, and income of every man in the land.

Results of the Norman Conquest. Under King William England was united into a strong centralized government. The Norman Conquest brought the country in contact with Continental ideas, including architecture, commerce, and science. The Anglo-Saxon language was softened and enriched by its blending with Norman French, and the fusion of Norman and English blood produced a stronger nation.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Describe the economic, political, and social conditions which led to Feudalism.
2. What effect had the location of London on its future growth?
3. In what way did the Druid priests act as a check on lawlessness among the Celtic people?
4. In what way politically might Charlemagne have influenced Egbert?
5. Summarize briefly the barbarian invasions from the Cimbri and the Teutons down to the Norman Conquest of England.
6. Why would a navy be of more importance to England than a large standing army?
7. Compare the work of Alfred the Great with that of Charlemagne. In your opinion, which was the greater man?

8. What other title did William hold besides King of England? Why was this of disadvantage to William?
9. Write an imaginary description of a town during the Feudal period and contrast it with the present. This problem might also be solved in the form of a picture or cartoon. Reference: Robinson's *Readings in European History*, Chapter IX.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Report on Chapter IX, Feudalism, in Robinson's *Readings in European History*. Chapter XI of the same book will give further information on the following subjects: King Alfred's Interest in Learning; The Battle of Hastings; The Rule of William the Conqueror.

II. Stories of King Arthur, as found in Tennyson's *Idylls of the King* or in Beatrice Clay's *Stories of King Arthur and His Round Table*, will serve to give a vivid picture of the old British peoples. *Beowulf*, the great Anglo-Saxon epic, gives a good idea of the life and customs of the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes; while *Viking Tales*, by Jennie Hall, serves a similar purpose for the Northmen.

III. The stories found in *Heroes Every Child Should Know*, by H. W. Mabie (Grosset and Dunlap), tell in a most fascinating way the story of King Arthur and Sir Galahad; while his story of Robin Hood depicts the disorder in England under Feudalism during the reign of William the Conqueror's successors.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

JOHNSON	<i>The Normans in Europe</i>	Scribner
ASHLEY	<i>English Economic History</i>	Putnam
ELY and WICKER	<i>Elementary Economics</i>	Macmillan

HISTORICAL NOVELS

MARK TWAIN	<i>A Connecticut Yankee at the Court of King Arthur</i>	Harper
PYLE	<i>Merry Adventures of Robin Hood</i> (Feudal conditions in England)	Scribner
PYLE	<i>Otto of the Silver Hand</i> (Feudal conditions in Germany)	Scribner
SHEFFEL	<i>Ekkehard</i>	Holt

CHAPTER XV

THE CLASH OF CHURCH AND STATE

Feudal England and France in the 11th Century. During the latter part of the eleventh century, as we have seen, William the Conqueror was King of England and all his vassals paid homage to him. In France this same William was the Duke of Normandy, and as such, a vassal of the French king, Philippe I. As an overlord the King of France was less powerful than his Norman liegeman, but nevertheless this feudal relationship was thoroughly understood by both rulers.

Henry IV and Gregory VII. The Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire during the time of William and Philippe was Henry IV, while the papal chair was occupied by Gregory VII, usually known as Hildebrand (hīl'-dē-bränd). As Emperor, Henry IV ruled over Germany and portions of Italy, and exercised a semblance of authority over Lorraine, Switzerland, the Netherlands, and Burgundy.

The feudal relationship between the Pope and the Emperor was not determined, each contending that the other was his vassal. This contention resulted in a long struggle, which included several other controversies and formed one of the outstanding events of this period, the clash of spiritual and temporal power.

Church Lands Affected by Feudalism. The general disorder of western Europe during the Epoch of Feudalism tended



POPE GREGORY VII

to disrupt the church organization and government. Abbots and bishops, fearing that their monasteries and bishoprics would be destroyed during these lawless times, did the only wise thing and became the vassals of powerful nobles. Since the churchmen paid homage and received their lands back as fiefs (usually known as benefices) from the nobles, the church lands were drawn into Feudalism.

Simony. There was one great temptation in this arrangement. When an abbot or bishop died the nobles insisted upon naming his successor and requiring him to pay a sum of money, the amount depending upon the income from the office. This developed into a "spoils system," where the vacancies often went to the highest bidders regardless of their religious or other qualifications.

Investiture of the Clergy. According to the church regulations, the nobles had no right to influence the election of the bishops or abbots. These officials were to be elected by the clergy in the bishoprics and the monks in the monasteries. The feudal lords, however, paid little attention to the church authorities. They invested the bishops and abbots with the lands and privileges of the feudal estates. They went farther, in many cases, and conferred upon the clergy the ring and the crosier (bishops' staff), the symbols of religious authority.

Church Property Endangered. An early church law had required all of the clergy to practice celibacy, that is, they were forbidden to marry. But during the tenth and eleventh centuries this rule was disregarded by the majority of churchmen in France, Germany, England, and Italy. It was feared by some that if the marriage of the clergy continued the church lands would become hereditary, the same as secular lands, because it would be only natural for these men to make provision for their children.

Claims of Pope and Emperor. The sale, purchase, and control of ecclesiastical (ĕ-klĕ'zĭ-ă's'tĭ-kal) offices by greedy and worldly nobles could not help but corrupt the Church. The fight between Pope and Emperor, begun long before the time of Gregory and Henry, divided western Christendom into two hostile groups, the Papal and the Imperial parties.

The followers of the Pope maintained that his spiritual

authority was supreme, and that all earthly rulers were subject to him. The Imperial party claimed that the Emperor was superior to the Pope. And ever since the time of Charlemagne the Emperors had tried to influence the appointment of the Popes.

College of Cardinals Established, 1059. This was the condition of affairs between Church and State during the middle of the eleventh century, when some of the clergy began a reform movement. In 1059 Pope Nicholas II, influenced by a monk named Hildebrand, organized the College of Cardinals. The cardinals (the principal churchmen) represented the clergy in and around Rome. It became their duty to elect the Pope. This, it was hoped, would deprive the Emperor of any say in the control of the election. The Church party won out, and to this day the choice of the Pope rests with the cardinals, who represent the Papacy throughout Christendom.

Hildebrand Elected Pope, 1073. It was this College of Cardinals that elected Hildebrand Pope in 1073, and he adopted the name Gregory VII. This fearless, energetic man took steps to correct the abuses within the Church and to assert his supremacy over the rulers of western Europe.

One of Gregory's first reforms was to force all clergy to observe their vows of celibacy. Those who were already married were ordered to resign immediately. If they persisted in remaining, none of their priestly functions was to be considered valid by good churchmen. The married clergy stoutly opposed this papal decree, but it was of no avail. In course of time the Pope's ambassadors visited the different countries and enforced his demands.

Excommunication—Interdict. The strongest weapon wielded by Gregory VII in the struggle already begun was his power of excommunication and interdict. A person excommunicated by the Pope was shut off from all the religious rites of the Church. He was ostracized and shunned by everyone. If a ruler was excommunicated all of his subjects were to renounce him and acknowledge a new sovereign. The people of this feudal period seldom hesitated to obey, since their souls' salvation was at stake. The interdict was used against an entire community. In this case all churches under

the ban were closed, no marriage ceremony could be performed, and no one could be buried with religious rites.

Lay Rulers Forbidden to Invest Bishops and Abbots. At a synod (assembly) held at Rome by order of Gregory it was decided that any priest, bishop, or abbot who accepted his office from a lay ruler would be immediately deposed. Furthermore, the secular lord, be he king or emperor, who dared invest the churchmen with the symbols of religious authority was to be excommunicated.

The Dictatus. Not satisfied with the above decree, Gregory also issued what is called the Dictatus. This was a statement of the powers he considered as belonging to the Pope, among which were the following:

1. The Pope alone may depose bishops and reinstate them.
2. The Pope is the only person whose feet are kissed by all princes.
3. The Pope may depose Emperors.
4. The Pope may absolve (release) the subjects of the unjust ruler from their allegiance.
5. A decree of the Pope may be annulled by no one; the Pope alone may annul the decrees of all.

If this seems like strong language, we must remember the hold that unscrupulous lay rulers had gained on the Church.

Effect of the Investiture Decree. The papal decree forbidding the investiture of the clergy by secular lords, and the sale and purchase of bishoprics, was sent to the most important rulers of western Europe. King William of England and King Philippe of France agreed to abide by it. In Germany, however, the Emperor and many of the bishops whom he had appointed became furious, and decided to get rid of Gregory.

Henry IV Deposes Gregory VII. Henry IV called a meeting of all the German bishops in the city of Worms. The Emperor, with the sanction of this council, replied to Gregory in a spirited letter. The Pope was denounced for removing several of the German bishops whom Henry had appointed. Furthermore, Henry claimed that he, and not the Pope, was the supreme authority in all things. To back up

this statement, he ended his letter by telling Gregory to give up his position as Pope at once, and let some one better qualified for the office occupy the papal chair.

Gregory VII Excommunicates Henry IV. As soon as Gregory received Henry's letter he too became angry, and sent an immediate answer. In his reply he excommunicated Henry, with all the German bishops, and sent messengers to Henry's vassals ordering them to elect a new Emperor. The people responded willingly. In the first place, they did not enjoy the oppressive rule of Henry; and in the second place, they were unwilling to have all church rites and privileges taken from them. The vassals prepared for a new election, and Henry saw there was but one thing to do, and that was to humble himself before Gregory and have the ban of excommunication lifted.



From the painting by Schwoisier

THE PENITENT EMPEROR

Henry IV seeking an audience with the Pope at a castle in Canossa.

The Scene at Canossa, 1077. In the winter of 1077 the Pope, who was on his way to Germany, stopped at Canossa (kă-nôs'să), a town in northern Italy, and established his headquarters in a strong castle. To this place Henry hastened,

and appeared before the castle gates. Dressed in the coarse woolen garb of a pilgrim, barefooted and standing in the snow, the Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire awaited the pleasure of the Pope. After three days Henry, very much weakened from his exposure and lack of sleep and food, was admitted into the presence of Gregory. The ban of excommunication was lifted and the possessions of the Emperor were restored.

Pope Gregory in Exile. The tears that Henry shed at Canossa were not due to sorrow for anything that he had done. He never forgave Gregory for humiliating him in this way. The idea of Henry, a descendant of a great line of rulers, and an Emperor of the realms of the once mighty Cæsars, standing in homage before a delicate little Pope, the son of a Tuscan peasant, galled and embittered him. Three years later the Emperor raised an army, descended upon Rome, deposed and forced Gregory into exile, and set up a new Pope whom he himself had chosen. Henry's position now seemed secure. Five years later Gregory died, an exile at Salerno (sä-lě'nō) in southern Italy, among his Norman friends.

Concordat of Worms, 1122. The scene at Canossa, and the subsequent triumph of Henry IV, decided nothing. It only made the successors of these two conspicuous actors in the drama more determined than ever to accomplish the supremacy of their respective powers. For the next three hundred years the struggle continued. At last a conference was called at Worms, where a compromise was agreed upon, known as the Concordat (agreement) of Worms. This concordat chiefly concerned the question of investiture. It was decided that the church officials were to elect their abbots and bishops and invest them with the symbols of religious authority; while the temporal rulers were to bestow the feudal privileges upon them as vassals. This did not change the situation much. If the feudal lords disliked the bishops appointed they simply refused to invest them with the land. And in many instances simony and the old method of investiture were carried on despite the Concordat of Worms.

The Northmen in Italy, 890-1090. While the Church was pushing its reforms, and the Popes and Emperors were fighting, the Northmen overran and took possession of Sicily and southern Italy. The island of Sicily was in the hands



SOUTHERN ITALY

At the time of the Norman conquests and occupations.

of the Mohammedan Arabs and was a part of the Saracen kingdom of Tunis. Southern Italy was under the control of the Eastern Emperor, while a large portion of the territory around Naples was ruled by independent counts, descendants of the Lombards.

In course of time the Northmen under Robert Guiscard (*gēs'kar'*) (the Cunning) conquered this whole region. Robert Guiscard was one of the picturesque characters of this period. He was one of twelve brothers, many of whom played important parts in the conquest of Italy. Robert is described as tall, deep voiced, and cruel. He became ruler of the ter-

ritory in southern Italy, while his brother Roger was placed in charge of the newly formed kingdom of Sicily, which was held as a fief of the Papacy.

Frederick I Endeavors to Unite All of Italy. In 1152 Frederick I, known as Barbarossa (red beard), became Emperor. He was the first of the Hohenstauffen (hō'ën-shtou'-fën) Emperors, so called because that was the name of the family castle in southern Germany. Frederick restored order in his German realms, and then endeavored to strengthen his position as Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire. He planned to unite all Italy under a strong centralized government, at the head of which he should reign supreme.

The Pope and the Italian Cities Object. The Popes objected to the scheme of Barbarossa. They knew that if he succeeded their power would be broken; and so the old struggle began anew. There was another class of people in Italy who were opposed to the imperial plans, those who lived in the growing towns and cities. The growth of towns and of city states, in both Italy and Germany, was in most cases the result of the long struggle between the Popes and the Emperors. In Italy the Popes called on the city democracies for aid against the Emperors, while in Germany the Emperors sought the assistance of the towns and the nobility in their conflicts with the Popes. The result was that in both countries, and especially in Italy, the cities were given one privilege after another until they grew very strong and practically independent. In Italy the followers of the Emperor went under the name of Ghibellines (gīb'ël-īnz), while the adherents of the Papacy were called Guelfs (gwělfz).

Italian Cities Become Independent. Frederick Barbarossa led one army after another into Italy, but in the end all his efforts were in vain. The cities made common cause, came together in the Lombard League, allied themselves with the Pope, and defeated the armies of the Emperor. In the treaty that followed the towns acknowledged the Emperor as their overlord, but were virtually independent. They secured the right to coin money, to wage war, and to conduct their own governments.

Pope Innocent III, 1198-1216. At the beginning of the thirteenth century Pope Innocent III was the most powerful

person in all Europe. Most of the Iberian peninsula was in the hands of the Mohammedans, but the Christian kings of Aragon (ār'â-gŏn) and Portugal were vassals of Innocent. He no longer feared the Emperor, and now we shall see how he even forced King John of England to surrender his kingdom and receive it back as a fief from the Papacy.

Innocent III and King John of England. In England, on the death of an Archbishop of Canterbury, King John compelled the monks to elect one of his friends to the vacancy. Innocent III demanded that the monks elect Stephen Langton (lång'tŏn) archbishop and depose the King's friend. As soon as John heard this he gave orders that Langton, although an Englishman, was not to enter England.

King John was thereupon excommunicated, and England placed under an interdict. For two years churches were draped in mourning; priests denied the sacraments to all the inhabitants; no weddings were sanctioned; and people were buried without a funeral service. To all this John was indifferent. Finally, Innocent III deposed him and ordered the King of France to take the English crown.

John now came to terms. He accepted Langton as archbishop, and in addition gave his kingdom to the Pope and received it back as a fief. Further, he promised to pay to the Papacy a yearly tribute. This tax was paid at irregular intervals for the next hundred years. The Pontificate of Innocent III was the high water mark of the Church in its struggle with the State.

Townspeople in Italy During the Feudal Period. The growing Italian towns during the feudal period were overcrowded. The poorer people lived in stuffy, unventilated houses. Garbage and refuse were thrown into the streets. This lack of sewerage and drainage caused sickness and disease. The filth and squalor resulted in epidemics and plagues, that swept over the country. The monks, living in seclusion in the monasteries, were hardly aware of the conditions of the people outside.

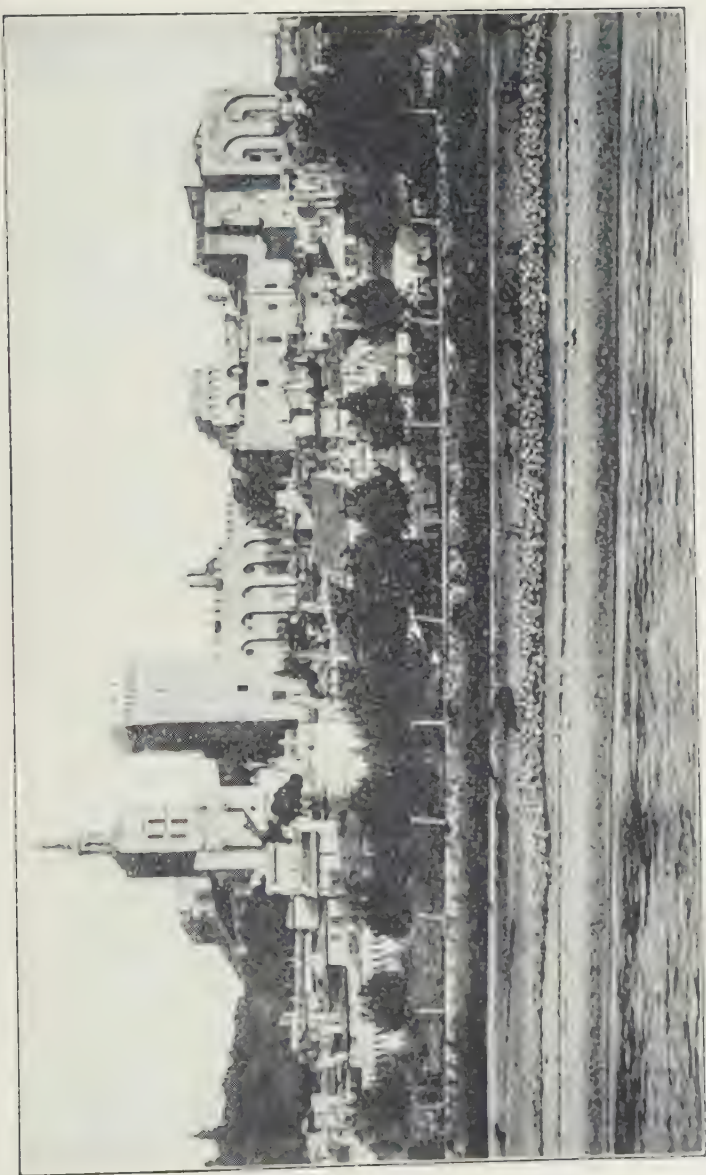
The Franciscan Friars. In 1209 Francis of Assisi (äs-sē'zē) organized a little band of friars (brothers). They renounced all earthly possessions, and went among the sick, the poor, and the needy. They cared for the lepers, and

worked among the slums of the cities. They gained their food and lodging by begging. Francis trudged to Rome and Innocent III sanctioned and blessed the new order, called the Franciscan (frän-sīs'kăn) Friars. Soon these gray cloaked clergy—they were not monks—were working not only in Italy, but throughout Europe. Their organization, which was one of the first mendicant (begging) orders, grew rapidly in numbers and influence. One noted historian has said: "No human creature since Christ has more fully incarnated the ideals of Christianity than Francis."

The Dominican Order. Less than a decade after the organization of the Franciscans, St. Dominic, a Castilian, founded the Dominican order. Dominic was a fiery and eloquent preacher. His one aim was to convert the Albigenses (ăl-bī-jěn'sēz). These people were a religious sect in southern France, who opposed many of the forms of worship introduced by the Church. They attacked the morals of the clergy; but more than this, they threatened the fundamental doctrines of the Christian Church. The Dominican order was also mendicant in character. The members were mainly preachers, and were much sterner than the Franciscans. They wore black robes, and were called the Black Friars to distinguish them from the Franciscans or Gray Friars.

Boniface III at Anagni, 1303. Near the end of the thirteenth century Pope Boniface issued an order forbidding all clergy, unless authorized by him, to pay taxes for the support of their respective governments. The King of France resented this, and so did his subjects. If the clergy did not support the government, the people would have to bear the clergy's share. So the Estates General, composed of the nobility, the clergy, and the common people, declared that the King of France had no superior except God. Soon after this, a band of French soldiers attacked Boniface, beat him, and took him prisoner. Three days later he was freed and sent to Rome. Here he was insulted again, and died shortly afterwards, broken-hearted. What a contrast was this affair at Anagni with that of Gregory at Canossa!

The Popes at Avignon. In 1309 the papal seat was moved from Rome and established at Avignon, in Provence, on the frontier of France. Here for nearly seventy years the Popes



PALACE OF THE POPES AT AVIGNON
Here the Popes lived during the seventy years of their absence from Rome.

resided. During this period all the Popes were Frenchmen, which was not pleasing either to the German or to the English people.

Germans and English Declare Their Independence of the Papacy. About the middle of the fourteenth century the German electors declared that the Emperor derived all of his power from God, through them. They declared the independence of the Emperor from the Papacy. A little later the English parliament, led by the King, repudiated the Pope's claim that England was a fief of the Papacy, and refused to pay any more tribute to Rome.

The Great Schism, 1378-1418. The people in Germany and England were not the only ones dissatisfied with the establishment of the Papacy at Avignon. The Italians wanted the Popes at Rome, where they had always been. This caused a split within the Church, known as the Great Schism (sīz'm). After a time the French party elected a Pope and the Italian party elected another. Now there were two Popes, one at Rome and one at Avignon. For forty years this condition existed, one Pope issuing decrees and the other annulling them. If the people obeyed one they thereby disobeyed the other, until the thing grew ridiculous.

Council of Pisa, 1409. So, finally, a great council was called at Pisa to settle the difficulty. The council deposed both Popes and elected a new one to be the supreme head of the Church. Satisfied with their easy solution of the problem the council adjourned, and its members went home. They had hardly reached their destinations when the news came that neither of the deposed Popes would resign, and that now there were three Popes instead of two.

Council of Constance, 1414. Five years later another council was called to settle the matter. One of the Popes resigned and the other two were deposed. This time the council made sure that it was obeyed. The warring factions were now united under one man. But the power of the Papacy over the State was broken.

Results of the Struggle. In this long struggle the people were really the gainers. Both Church and lay authorities were weakened, and forced to ask the help of towns and vassals; and they did not receive this aid without sacrificing

a great deal of power. Italy and Germany were filled with towns that had been granted charters—documents giving them a large measure of self-government. France was given its first representative government when the Estates General was called. England forced from King John the Magna Carta (Great Charter), that early document of English liberties. All of this we shall find out about later, in the Chapter on the Growth of Nations.

In the meantime we must turn our attention to the East, where the Emperor had called on all Christians to aid in expelling the Turks from the Holy Land. The response of western Europe to this summons is known as the Crusades.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. In what way did Feudalism cause the rivalry between Church and State?
2. How did the Church endeavor to combat simony? How do the present civil service examinations in our country tend to offset the spoils system—the appointment to political office through favoritism?
3. Trace the history of the Church from the time of the early deacons to the fifteenth century.
4. Discuss the settlements of the Northmen in France, Italy, and England.
5. Show how it was that under Feudalism the Concordat of Worms was impracticable.
6. In what way did circumstances favor the Norman conquest of Italy?
7. Were the privileges granted to the Italian towns by Frederick Barbarossa in full accord with feudal custom? Give reasons for your answer.
8. Contrast the work of the monks with that of the mendicant friars, and show how each aided progress.
9. Is there any organization in your community that compares with the Franciscan friars? If so, how is this organization financed?

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Read Chapter XII in Robinson's *Readings in European History* for a good description of Germany and Italy in the tenth and eleventh centuries; Chapter XIII for the conflicts between Gregory VII and Henry IV; and Chapter XIV for the Hohenstauffen Emperors and

the Popes, which includes the growth of the Italian towns. Chapter XVII, on Heresy and the Friars, gives the attitude of the French, English, and German people on the morals of the clergy, from the Pope down; also the beliefs and persecutions of the heretics.

II. For a picture of the Northmen in Sicily report on King Robert of Sicily, as found in Longfellow's *Tales of a Wayside Inn*.

III. Brief reports on the lives of Gregory VII, Frederick Barbarossa, and Robert Guiscard will aid in giving a picture of these times.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

JOHNSON	<i>The Normans in Europe</i>	Scribner
HARDING	<i>New Medieval and Modern History</i>	American Book

CHAPTER XVI

THE CRUSADES

The Crusades Defined. The Crusades were a series of pilgrimages and religious wars that took place during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. They were conflicts waged by the Christians of western Europe against the Mohammedan Turks in Asia Minor. The chief purpose of the Crusades was to recover the Holy Land and the Holy Sepulcher of Christ from the Turks. The causes of the Crusades, the motives of the people who participated in them, and their results are complicated and interesting. For this reason it is necessary to get a glimpse of the contending forces, first of the feudal West and then of the Mohammedan East.

Education Under Feudalism. Like everything else in western Europe during the feudal Epoch, education was influenced by the disorder of the times. The period from the death of Charlemagne to about 1150 has been called by historians the "Dark Ages." Most of the schools during this period were connected with the monasteries or with the courts of the nobles.

Aim of the Church Schools. The aim of the church schools was principally to prepare their students for the clergy. Some idea of these schools was given in the description of the monasteries. Further, the pupils were taught to read

and write a crude sort of Latin. They were given the simplest problems in arithmetic and geometry, but outside of a little astronomy there was no study of nature. Music was taught, but only so much as was considered necessary to conduct church services.

Method of Instruction. There were no classroom discussions or criticisms. Everyone was to believe without question the statements made in all subjects, because they had been sanctioned by the church authorities. While these schools were teaching as a religious belief that the world was flat, the Mohammedan teachers in Spain were using globes to teach geography. While the students in the monastic schools of Europe were without even a textbook, the students in Mohammedan countries had access to large libraries.

Chivalry as an Educational Institution. The schools that were established around the courts of the nobles in western Europe at this time offered the only education that most of the nobility received. The aim of these schools was primarily to train the nobles for war. This training was embodied in a somewhat organized system of discipline known as chivalry, a word derived from the French *cheval* (horse). In this manner education was also drawn into Feudalism.

The Page. A boy remained with his mother until he was seven years old, when he was sent to the castle of one of the leading nobles and his training for knighthood began. From seven to fourteen years of age the boy served as a page to his lord and mistress. During these years he did odd jobs about the castle, such as running errands and waiting upon the tables. In the early years of chivalry, which developed about the time of Charles Martel, there was little intellectual training. A noble who could read and write was considered unmanly. During the Crusades, however, it was quite common for men and women in the upper classes to read. But even when chivalry was at its height, the page was only required to learn the minstrel songs and music. When he had accomplished this it became his duty to read, sing, or play for his mistress and for the ladies of the court.

The Fundamental Teachings of Chivalry. The fundamental and all-important things for the boy to learn under chivalry, however, were reverence for superiors, kindness

toward the poor and weak, courtesy toward women, and bravery. The court ladies gave the boy lessons in religion, courtesy, good manners, and pleasant speech. The knights taught him how to handle and ride a horse, how to wield a sword and use the shield, and how to throw the javelin and tilt the lance.

The Squire. When the page became fourteen or fifteen years old he was called a squire or esquire. He then became the attendant of some particular knight. As such he took care of his armor, keeping it bright and clean. He accompanied the knight on hunting expeditions, and followed him in battle, ever ready to offer assistance when needed. During all these years the boy was working, training, and longing for that day when he would be twenty-one years old, and able to prove himself worthy of knighthood.

The Ceremony of Knighthood. At last the day arrived and he prepared for his graduation exercises. The evening before, he gathered together his sword, shield, and armor and went to the nearby church. He placed his equipment on the altar, and remained all night in fasting and prayer. In the morning he went to confession, and then attended mass. These were forms which had grown up within the church after the second century. Following mass there was a talk on the duties and obligations of knighthood, and then came the final ceremony. Dressed in full armor, he appeared before his lord and knelt upon one knee. In the presence of the court ladies and knights he took his vows. Then the lord struck him on the shoulder with the flat of a sword. The blow was called the "accolade." After this ceremony the initiate was proclaimed a knight and commanded to rise.

This was the usual ceremony of knighthood; but often a squire was knighted on the battle field for some act of bravery, with no ceremony except the accolade. This was considered an unusual honor.

The Tournament. The chief sport and amusement of feudal society was the tournament. This was a sham battle fought between knights on horseback. Sometimes there were but two participants; at other times there were whole companies. The knight would appear in a large arena called the "lists," dressed in a coat of chain mail and wearing an iron



THE ACCOLADE

Since the Age of Chivalry the military features of knighthood have disappeared. In modern times the sovereign of Great Britain confers the honor of knighthood as a reward of unusual personal merit. Knights may use the title *Sir* before their names and their wives use the title *Lady*. Neither the rank nor the title is hereditary as both are in the case of baronets whose title is also *Sir*.

helmet. The sides of the lists were crowded with spectators. Often some beautiful lady presided, who was known as the queen of the tournament. Each knight wore the ribbons or colors of his favorite lady, and he fought for her approval and to gain her admiration. Knights came from afar to witness or take part in these tournaments. Sometimes the fighters used blunted swords and lances without heads, in which case it was the object of the opponents to unhorse one another. More often, however, the ordinary weapons were used, and the knights fought to the death. History records one tournament alone in which there were over sixty knights slain, and in the sixteenth century a King of France who entered the lists was killed.



A MOUNTED KNIGHT
Armor protects both the knight and his horse.

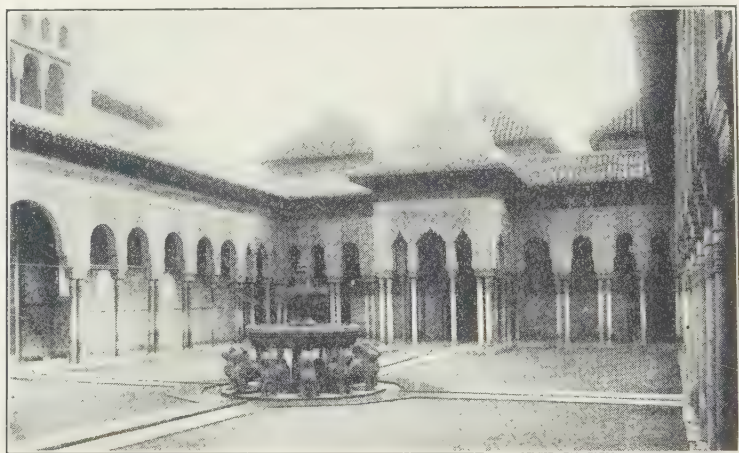
Heraldry. During the later years of the feudal Epoch, when knights wore heavy plated armor that completely covered their heads and bodies, they emblazoned some sign or picture on their shield, helmet, or breastplate. In this way they could be distinguished in the lists. The designs thus used were the beginning of another institution, known as heraldry, which developed into the use of coats-of-arms, still to be found in both Europe and America.

The Mohammedan Arabs in the Eleventh Century. We have already noted the Mohammedan Arabs and their conquests during the seventh and eighth centuries; how they gained possession of Egypt, Northern Africa, and Syria (the Holy Land) from the Eastern Roman Empire; how their armies overran and subdued Persia and parts of India; and how in the west they were only stopped in France by Charles Martel and his forces. "From the river Indus to the Pillars of Hercules the same religion was professed, the same tongue spoken, and the same laws obeyed." Such was the extent of their territories in the eleventh century.

Weakness of Mohammedan Government. Mohammed had been able to govern his people and control their religious and political thought. After his death, however, the children and relatives of his several wives quarreled about their respective rights, and murders and civil wars followed each other in rapid succession. With the Mohammedan rulers weakened by their quarrels, the government was soon controlled by independent Caliphs in different parts of the country. The principal cities and caliphates were at Bagdad on the Tigris, the city made famous by the tales of the Arabian Nights, at Damascus in Syria, at Cairo (kī'rō) in Egypt, and at Cor'dova in Spain.

Mohammedan Civilization. It is the Mohammedan civilization of the eleventh century, however, that surprises us most, when we consider the conditions in western Europe during the same period. The science and architecture of the Arabs far surpassed that of the Christian West. Twelve thousand students attended the University of Cairo, and universities were established and well attended in other cities. Mohammedan scholars were versed in mathematics, chemistry, medicine, and pharmacy. They knew the use of anæsthetics.

They discovered many of our common laws of physics. All this the Mohammedan students were being taught while western Europe was, in the main, ignorant and superstitious. Their architecture is still preserved in the beautiful mosques and fountains of Spain and Damascus.



COURT OF THE LIONS IN THE ALHAMBRA

The Alhambra, in Granada, Spain, is one of the finest examples of Moorish architecture. The Court of the Lions was begun in 1377 A.D. The overflow water from the fountain in the center flows along the drains to the surrounding rooms, where it helps to keep those rooms cool.

Commerce. The Mohammedans were a great commercial people. Their ships sailed the Mediterranean and Caspian Seas, and brought home spices and furs from the Far East by way of the Indian Ocean. Their sailors learned the use of the magnetic needle from the Chinese. Caravans made their slow journeys through Africa, India, and China.

Manufactures. The Arabs manufactured swords and armor, and fashioned vases of silver, copper, and bronze. Their carpets and rugs, in great demand today in all countries, were of just as fine quality and workmanship at this time. They manufactured perfumes and syrups, and possessed spices, which were a luxury in Europe. The spices were especially in demand to flavor and preserve vegetables for it must be

remembered that there were no cold storage products in those days.

The Byzantine Civilization. The Eastern Roman Empire, often called Byzantium from the old name of Constantinople, had also maintained its ancient culture and prosperity. Manufactures and trade flourished. Although the government was in the hands of an absolute monarch, there were order and justice as compared with western Europe. In Constantinople and other cities the streets were paved, and at night the city was lighted. There was a well organized police system. Public parks, hospitals, and schools were established. Their cities, like those of the Mohammedans, had fine large market places called bazaars.

The Seljuk Turks. It was at the opening of the eleventh century that we hear of the Turks, a Hunnish people. They had pushed down through the Great Eurasian Enclosure, and under one of their leaders, Seljuk, the different tribes were united. They started an invasion of the Mohammedan world, but were soon converted to Islam. At length they conquered Bagdad, and their leader set up a government over which he ruled as an absolute monarch with the title of Sultan. The Caliph, however, was to be the supreme head of all religious matters concerning the Mohammedan faith. He was to the Islam world what the Pope was to the Christian world.

Intolerance of the Turks. The Turks were far below the Arabs in civilization. They were destroyers, as had been all barbarians before them. They were intolerant and often cruel. While the Arabs had allowed the Christian pilgrims to visit Palestine unmolested, the Turks persecuted and insulted them in many ways. The pilgrims who returned home told of these things, and the tales spread. News also reached Europe that the Turks were destroying the holy shrines and turning the Christian churches into stables. These tales and rumors had already roused in many Christians a desire to rescue the Holy Land from the infidel Turk. But the movement was given impetus by the appeal of the Byzantine Emperor to the Pope for aid against the Seljuks.

Michael VII Appeals to Gregory VII for Aid. The Turks now threatened Constantinople. This city had long been a barrier to the Asiatic people who had tried to invade



EUROPE AT TIME OF THE CRUSADES AND THE EXTENT OF THE MOHAMMEDAN POSSESSIONS

western Europe. On the other hand, it had been attacked on the European side by the Germanic tribes in the fifth century, and by the Bulgarians and Northmen during the eleventh century. But it still stood unconquered—the Queen of the Bosphorus. Now, with the Turks threatening its safety, the Greek Emperor Michael VII appealed to Pope Gregory VII for help. The Pope, as we have seen, was too busy fighting with Henry IV to pay much attention to Michael.

Pope Urban II and the Council of Clermont. In 1095 the situation grew so serious that Alexius, the successor of Michael, sent an embassy to Pope Urban II requesting immediate aid. The Pope was very much elated because the Emperor had appealed to him, instead of to some of the powerful kings. It added to his prestige. Furthermore, it would give him a chance, if successful, to extend his influence over Syria, Palestine, and other eastern countries. Urban hoped to put a stop to the continuous warfare among the kings, princes, and feudal lords, which was so disastrous to the peace and welfare of Europe. The attack on Islam would also provide an outlet for the boundless energy of the Northmen, who were always looking for adventure and plunder, and were centering their activities too near the Papal States for the Pope's comfort. So in 1095 Urban summoned a council of all the leading clergy and great nobles, to meet at Clermont in France.

The Pope's Appeal. In an eloquent speech he painted a dramatic picture of the cruelty of the Turks. He told of the suffering and misery of the Christians who had been enslaved and tortured by the unbelievers. And then he appealed to their greed by telling them of the prosperity and wealth of the East, comparing it with their own land. "Let none of your possessions retain you, no solicitude for your family affairs. For this land which you inhabit, shut in on all sides by the seas, and surrounded by the mountain peaks, is too narrow for your large population; nor does it abound in wealth; and it furnishes scarcely food enough for its cultivators. Hence it is that you murder one another and devour one another, that you wage war, and that very many among you perish in internal strife. Let hatred therefore depart from among you, let your quarrels end, let wars cease, and

let all dissensions and controversies slumber. Enter upon the road to the Holy Sepulcher; wrest that land from the wicked race, and subject it to yourselves. That land which, as the Scripture says, 'floweth with milk and honey' was given by God into the power of the Children of Israel. Jerusalem is the center of the earth; the land is fruitful above all others, like another paradise of delights."

Pope Urban appealed to the religious sentiment of his hearers, by picturing the Holy Land calling for aid from the great Christian people in the west. He commanded all who took the pilgrimage to wear the sign of the cross on their foreheads or on their breasts as they journeyed to Jerusalem, and after they had completed their task to wear it on their backs as they returned from the Holy Land. In conclusion he reminded them that "he that taketh not his cross and followeth after Me is not worthy of Me."

Privileges of the Crusaders. At this point a great shout burst from the assembly, and cheer followed cheer as people cried, "It is the will of God!" "It is the will of God!" Men shouldered and elbowed their way to the front in order to get one of the crusaders' badges, a cross of red cloth. The French word for cross is "croix," hence the name "crusaders"—men who wore the cross. All crusaders were to receive forgiveness of their sins. They were exempted from taxation, freed from the payment of interest on their debts, and pardoned for their crimes. If they died fighting the infidel, they were promised immediate entrance into Paradise.

Unorganized Attempts to Rescue the Holy Land. The enthusiasm created at Clermont spread throughout the country. People lost all reason and common sense; and without waiting for any organization or preparation by the authorities, they congregated in large crowds and under irresponsible leaders. These mobs then started for the Holy Land. Criminals, debtors, adventurers, poor and landless people, as well as religious fanatics and sincere enthusiasts, followed the lead of men like Walter the Penniless and Peter the Hermit.

Peter the Hermit. The latter had gone through many a town, riding on an ass and carrying a cross in front of him. He harangued the people and led a multitude to Constantinople. While in the city they became such a nuisance that



PETER THE HERMIT

Alexius quickly sent these ragged, unarmed allies into Asia Minor, where nearly all of them were killed. Another band of these first enthusiasts **were still more unfortunate**, for many of them were massacred in Hungary for starting a pogrom (wholesale murder) of the Jews in that country.

The First Crusade and Its Leaders, 1096-1099. In France, southern Italy, and parts of Germany armies were being mobilized under the great feudal lords, and vast preparations were being made. They were to meet at Constantinople in 1096. From Normandy came Duke Robert, the son of William the Conqueror. From Italy and Sicily came the Northmen, led by Bohemond (bō'hê-mōnd), the son of Robert Guiscard, and Tancred his nephew. Raymond of Toulouse from France and the two brothers Godfrey and Baldwin from the Rhineland brought contingents to join their fellow crusaders.

The Crusaders in Asia Minor. Under the command of their separate leaders (there was no commander-in-chief) the Christian army, about fifty thousand strong, crossed over to the mainland and captured Nicæa, where the first church council had been held under Constantine. The crusaders

then pushed into Asia Minor and reached Antioch. This city was a stronghold and had to be taken if the invaders wished to reach northern Syria. After a seven months' siege the city surrendered and the crusaders entered. They were no sooner within, however, than they themselves were besieged by the Turks. The Christian army was now in desperate straits. Many of its soldiers were on the sick list or had died from disease, many had deserted, and Alexius failed to send help.

The situation was saved by a priest, who told the leaders of the army that he had a dream in which he saw the lance which had pierced the side of Jesus. He claimed that the spear was hidden in the church, and if it was found the Christian army would be victorious. The spear was found by the priest, and the crusaders attacked the Turks with such bravery that they were put to flight.

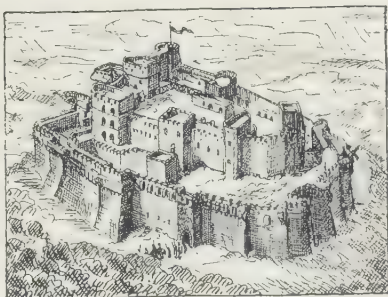
Fall of Jerusalem, 1099 A.D. The crusaders now advanced slowly upon Jerusalem, the goal for which they had started. Before the city was stormed, the soldiers led by Peter the Hermit marched around the walls in their bare feet. The city was then attacked, and the invaders rushed in and massacred their enemies without mercy. After this they went weeping and rejoicing to the tomb of the Savior, to give thanks.

The Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem. Godfrey of Bouillon was elected King of the Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem, but he refused to wear a crown of gold in Jerusalem, "where his Christ had worn a crown of thorns." The new Latin kingdom was parceled out in fiefs to the various leaders, and they were permitted to coin money, make war, and deal out justice. Feudalism was thus carried into the Holy Land.

Syria was finally conquered, and divided into three feudal crusader states, whose capitals were at Antioch, Tripoli (Syria), and Edessa. Many of the crusaders, now considering their vows fulfilled, pinned the cross on their backs and started home. Others remained to get as much as they could out of their conquests.

Hospitalers and Templars. It was during the first crusade that two famous religious military orders were organized known as the Hospitalers (hōs'pī-tāl-ēr-z) and the Temp-

lars. The members were both monks and knights; for in addition to taking the vows of chastity, poverty, and obedience, they vowed to protect all pilgrims and to fight the infidels. The Hospitalers received their name from the fact that their organization originated with a few men who had cared for the sick pilgrims in a hospital at Jerusalem. The Templars were so called because



FORTRESS OF KNIGHTS HOSPITALERS

their headquarters at Jerusalem had been situated near the site of Solomon's Temple. These orders became great rivals, and in the later Crusades they were noted for their bravery and their contempt for death in battle. Wherever danger was the greatest, whenever a difficult objective was to be reached, whatever other troops had failed to accomplish, there were sent the Hospitalers or the Templars.

Second Crusade, 1147-1149. About fifty years after the first Crusade the crusader state of Edessa was recaptured by the Turks. Western Europe was again aroused by the eloquence of monks and by the fears expressed by the Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem that the Holy City was in danger. The Kings of France and Germany joined in this second Crusade. Outside of an unsuccessful siege of Damascus, nothing was attempted; and, as an old chronicler said, "Nothing was accomplished and the inglorious ones returned home."

Saladin, 1138 to 1198. There was born in Asia Minor, near the end of the second Crusade, a boy whose real name is so hard to pronounce that we won't even mention it. Moreover, hardly anyone would know who was meant. Later in life he was given the title of Saladin (Honor of the Faith), and as Saladin he has come down in history. He was a Kurd, one of the Indo-European people who had accepted Mohammedanism and settled in Kurdistan in Asia Minor. Saladin's father was the governor of Armenia under the Seljukian (sĕl-jōōk'ī-ăn) Turks. The son became a great

military leader, and won the favor of the Sultan by capturing Egypt for his monarch. It was during the first and second Crusades that the Turks were weakened by internal strife, which proved to be a very favorable circumstance for the crusaders. Saladin succeeded in uniting the Turks. He overran and conquered Syria, and was proclaimed Sultan of Egypt and Syria by the Caliph of Bagdad.

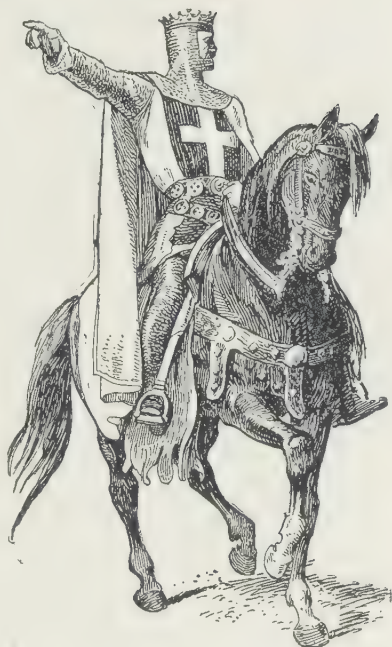
Capture of Jerusalem by the Turk, 1187. Saladin's one ambition was to regain the Mohammedan lands embraced in the Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem. Offering the excuse that one of the Christian leaders had broken faith with him, he declared war. Within a short time he had captured Palestine and taken Jerusalem. In victory he proved himself more humane and merciful than many of the Christian leaders. The lives of non-combatants were spared, captives were set free upon ransom, and many of the poorer prisoners, unable to pay for their release, were given their liberty instead of being slain.

The Third Crusade, 1189-1192. The news that Jerusalem had again fallen into the hands of the Turks was received with great alarm in Europe. More speeches were made and more promises given. Men who had been on previous Crusades had long talked of the wonders of the East. And now a new generation had grown up, one that had listened with awe and longing to the adventures of these old soldiers. Soon thousands were ready to join in the "great adventure." This third Crusade was the most illustrious and picturesque of any of the attempts to regain the Holy Land.

Frederick Barbarossa. Frederick Barbarossa, the German Emperor, took the overland route, and his troops after many hardships reached the southern part of Asia Minor. Barbarossa was drowned and many of his soldiers returned home. A few went on to Acre, to help the English and French in the siege of this stronghold. Barbarossa became the popular hero of the German people. Their legends always spoke of him as being asleep on a golden throne among the mountains, and that some day, when his country needed him, he would awake and come to its assistance.

Philip Augustus and Richard Lion-Heart. The French troops under their King Philip Augustus, and the English

led by their great warrior King Richard Cœur de Leon (the lion-hearted), went by sea. The expeditionary forces landed on the Mediterranean coast and captured the city of Acre. Then the two Kings quarreled and Philip went home. For fourteen months Richard remained in the Holy Land. He achieved great renown as a fighter, but was unable to capture Jerusalem. He finally concluded a peace with Saladin, which permitted Christians to visit Jerusalem without being molested. Richard then started home, with the Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem still in the hands of the Turks.



RICHARD LION-HEART

Fourth Crusade 1202-1261. Pope Innocent III instigated the fourth Crusade. There was very little enthusiasm aroused,

The third Crusade was headed by Philip of France, Frederick Red Beard of Germany, and Richard Lion-Heart, the outstanding hero.

as compared with the former movements. People were tiring of Crusades. Their hardships, dangers, and sufferings were well understood by this time. The sea route was far the easier, and those who joined the fourth Crusade planned to meet at Venice. They had decided to make Egypt their objective, but the Venetians (vē-nē'shāns) refused to furnish the crusaders with ships until they promised to capture a Christian seaport on the eastern Adriatic, a commercial rival of Venice. The crusaders made the promise; and in spite of the fact that the Pope protested, the city was captured. The Venetians then bribed the crusaders to capture Constantinople.

Constantinople Sacked by Crusaders. And so it happened that Constantinople, that city which had sent out a call for Christian Europe to aid it against Islam, was seized and plundered by Christians; and all because Venice desired to be the greatest commercial center of Europe. The Roman Empire of the East was divided and organized into fiefs, and took the name "The Latin Empire of Constantinople." For sixty years it remained in the hands of its conquerors, at the end of which time the Greeks were able to regain their country.

The Children's Crusade, 1212. Historians usually enumerate eight Crusades, four major and four minor. But we get a clear conception of these movements if we understand that they were an almost continuous affair for two hundred years, covering the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. The beginning of the thirteenth century was marked by one of the saddest spectacles in all history, the children's Crusade.

The French Children. A French peasant lad, Stephen, was the preacher of this Crusade. He was convinced that he was ordained by God to lead a Crusade of children into Asia to regain the Holy Sepulcher. Children grew excited, parents hardly knew what to think, and gradually the excitement spread. Thousands of children gathered at specified meeting places. Then thirty thousand French boys and girls, so the Chronicles state, set out for Marseilles (mär-sälz'). Many grew impatient and homesick, and turned back. But some five thousand of them put their confidence in several Marseilles merchants, who promised to take them to Palestine free of charge. Crowding the children in seven small ships, these merchants sailed for the East, where they sold the children as slaves in the Mohammedan slave markets.

The German Children. Forty thousand German children crossed the Alps and marched to the shores of Italy. Thousands of these poor little crusaders died on the journey and were buried in unmarked graves. Some of the German children reached Rome and were persuaded by the Pope to return home.

Results of the Crusades. The children's Crusade was the last great feverish movement of crusaders to the East. From now on, the desire to crusade waned, and by the thirteenth century these wars had ended. From a religious and mili-

tary point of view they were a failure. The Mohammedans still possessed the Holy Land. The territory that had been conquered by the Christians was retaken, and remained in the hands of the Turks down to the time of the World War.

Effect on Feudalism. However, in many ways the Crusades were a benefit to Europe. Thousands of the nobles borrowed money from the town burghers, who were growing wealthy, and offered their land as security. Many more borrowed, upon the same terms, from the merchants and banks in Venice, Genoa, and Florence. Later they came home, sick in body and usually without money. They were forced to give up their land in payment for their debts. Others were killed and left no heirs, and in this way Feudalism was undermined.

Economic and Social Effect. Again, the contact of Europe with the Oriental civilization was a liberal education. New and better ideas of dress, sanitation, architecture, science, and literature were brought back by the crusaders. A demand for Oriental products, such as ornaments, dress goods, spices, and other foodstuffs, gave a new impetus to commerce. The result of this was a growth of ship-building, an interest in navigation, and a growing influence of the tradesmen and merchants. Trade routes between East and West were established, cities grew up, and soon, as we shall see, great leagues were formed for commercial purposes. The end of the Crusades meant a new kind of political, economic, social, and religious life for feudal Europe.

And now, after following the movements of conquerors, the squabbles of popes, emperors, kings, sultans, and caliphs, and the pleasures and sports of knights in armor, it will be a change to turn to the town and country life of the "common people" during this Epoch, and get their side of the story.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. The origin of the game of chess has been lost in myth and legend, but it was very popular during the feudal epoch. In what way do the chess board characters compare with feudal terms? Why would chess be an interesting game in feudal times?
2. In what way was the Mohammedan government weak? How

does this weakness compare with that of Alexander the Great's Empire?

3. Why were the Mohammedan and Greek civilizations superior to the civilization of Western Europe during the Crusades?
4. In what aspect did the Christians of Western Europe differ from the Christians of Byzantium? How did this weaken the concentrated action of the Crusaders?
5. In what way did the aims of feudal education resemble modern aims?
6. In what way did the privileges granted to the crusaders affect the personnel of the armies?
7. Locate the four principal caliphates of the Mohammedans; Kurdistan; the Crusader States; Venice, Genoa, and Florence.
8. Why were the "Dark Ages" so called?
9. In what way did the Crusades affect Feudalism? Western civilization?
10. During the World War the allied armies in Europe were placed under one commander, General Foch. How did Feudalism tend to discourage such action? Did this affect the third Crusade under King Richard of England and Philip Augustus of France?

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. In Robinson's *Readings in European History*, Vol. I, Chapter XV, read the complete speech of Pope Urban II. Report on the remaining Crusades as found in the same chapter.

II. An interesting description of a tournament can be given by those who have read, or will read, portions of Sir Walter Scott's novel *Ivanhoe*. Cervantes' *Don Quixote* is an amusing satire on chivalry that will not only interest, but explain how chivalry outlived its usefulness. Our own Mark Twain, in his *A Connecticut Yankee at the Court of King Arthur*, will further illustrate the superficial qualities of chivalry.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

COX	<i>The Crusades</i>	Scribner
OGG	<i>Source Book of Medieval History</i>	American Book
GUIZOT	<i>History of Civilization in Europe</i>	Appleton

HISTORICAL NOVELS

DAVIS	<i>God Wills It</i> (a tale of the First Crusade)	Macmillan
SCOTT	<i>Ivanhoe</i>	Dutton
SCOTT	<i>Quentin Durward</i>	Macmillan

CHAPTER XVII

TOWN AND COUNTRY LIFE

The Village. In feudal times the country people, as we have seen in Chapter XIV, were forced to live a group life near a large monastery or a strong castle. Grouped around a manor house were the small thatch-roofed homes of the serfs and the freemen, while nearby stood the church. Surrounding this community life were the farms, pastures, meadows, and woods. The entire demesne was often inclosed by a moat or wall, and was known as a vill or village. Here the villeins (serfs) and the cotters (owners of cottages) worked the land and paid their feudal obligations to the bishop or to the lord of the castle.

Bailiffs and Stewards in England. In England each lord of a manor had an overseer, known as a bailiff, to care for his interests. If a noble was wealthy and owned several fiefs he appointed a higher official, called a steward, who exercised a general supervision over all the bailiffs. The bailiffs and stewards collected the feudal dues for the lord, assigned work, and held courts to settle disputes.

The Free Artisans. In the village there were a few free artisans—such as shoemakers, tailors, barbers, carpenters, and blacksmiths—who plied their trades and rendered service and dues to their feudal lords. The blacksmith of the manor repaired the crude agricultural implements, and the village barber often acted as doctor for the poor. He applied plasters and ointments to patients, and, as was the custom of the times, bled those who were suffering from disease. The red stripes on our barber poles are a survival of the days when this sign meant blood-letting.

The Hamlet. There were no farmers living on isolated farms, possibly a mile or more from their nearest neighbor, as is so often the case in the United States today. Any men who would have attempted such a foolish thing in the feudal age would soon have become victims of bandits. When a few families, under favorable conditions, located any distance from the village they again built their houses close together



Tailor



Shoemaker

GUILD CRAFTSMEN

and worked the lands that surrounded their homes. These smaller communities in England were called hamlets. Country life under Feudalism was hamlet or village life. And as towns and cities were in most cases merely large villages, a good idea of all can be gained by a knowledge of town life.

Home Manufacture or Domestic System. The population of western Europe during the ninth, tenth, and eleventh centuries was mostly rural and the chief occupation was agriculture. Of course, there was some manufacturing, but most of this was done in the homes. The peasants often built their own houses. They usually made their own saddles and harness and wagons. The father in many cases made the shoes for the family, while the mother made the clothing.

Early Feudal Times Unfavorable for Trade. There was also some trade and commerce during these centuries, but the disorder and lawlessness of the times was not favorable for a merchant class. The roads were in bad condition, bridges were broken down, robbers lurked along the highways, and feudal lords exacted toll at every village or fief. Any merchant who successfully passed through these inconveniences and dangers would, in the end, be forced to barter or trade

his goods, since there was no uniform money or uniform laws of trade throughout any country.

Later Feudal Times Favorable to Trade. By the eleventh century the barbarians, the Northmen, and the Mohammedans had settled down. Conditions in western Europe were more orderly, but far from ideal. The Crusades had started, and bandits and nobles alike sought plunder in the East. They returned with little booty but with new and better ideas and desires. All of these things gave a new impetus to trade and commerce.

The Manorial Town. Many of the manorial villages that were situated near some important river, or along one of the old overland trade routes, now sprang into prominence. Pilgrims, merchants, and crusaders stopped at the village inns. Here on a Saturday evening, when the week's toil was over, the freemen, the cotters, and the craftsmen of the village would gather. They listened to the ex-crusader as he told of the wonders of the East, and were eager to see the souvenirs from that strange land. They viewed the contents of the merchant's pack and purchased his articles from foreign lands.

Soon the products from Asia Minor, India, and China, as well as the Mediterranean countries and the northern shores of the Baltic, were finding their way into every river and trade route village of western Europe. The additional population made it necessary to have more inns, more stores, more craftsmen, and a different form of government; for the village was now a town or borough.

The Roman Cities. The manorial towns were not the largest, nor necessarily the most important, during these centuries. The old Roman cities of Venice, Florence, Milan, and Genoa in Italy were the great commercial centers for trade between the East and the West. London, in England, controlled the imports and exports of the English people. Paris, in France, and Cologne, in Germany, were the largest cities in their respective countries.

Cities and Towns. There was very little difference between a city and a town during the feudal age. Sometimes a town that contained a cathedral and was the residence of a bishop was called a city. In some places, especially in Germany, the towns were known as boroughs; and after they

had gained a semblance of self-government their officers were called burghers (*bûr'gêrz*). In France the free towns were known as communes, and were ruled by mayors and aldermen, or by a board of consuls.

Roman Towns Drawn into Feudalism. Like everyone else, the inhabitants of the old Roman towns were drawn into Feudalism. They became the vassals of some overlord, often a prince, king, or emperor. For the protection they received the towns paid tribute to their suzerain and helped him in his military campaigns.

Manorial Towns Subject to Feudal Lords. In the early manorial towns the feudal lord owned all of the land. The new inhabitants—the merchants who sold raw materials that could not be procured at home, and the craftsmen who also sold what they made—not only paid rental, but were forced to abide by the harsh laws that had been made for the serfs and for their own class during sterner days. None but the nobles and their friends were allowed to fish in the streams or hunt on any of the meadows or open spaces. As the merchants and craftsmen prospered, all kinds of methods were used by the lords to get at least a portion of their earnings. Eventually these townspeople got together, talked over their grievances, and organized societies called guilds.

The Craft Guilds. Soon the merchants and the craftsmen who engaged in a special line of work separated and formed their own organizations. In this way the craft guilds arose, composed of butchers, bakers, tanners, tailors, shoemakers, and all other trades. In the earlier feudal period these craftsmen used to wander from house to house seeking work. If a father did not make his own or his children's shoes, and if he happened to have considerable means, he waited for the itinerant shoemaker. When this worthy arrived he measured the family's feet, used leather that was supplied by the father, and was given his board and lodging until his job was finished. After receiving his pay he bade all goodby and went in search of more customers. The craft guilds forbade this kind of house-to-house labor.

No one was permitted to work at any craft unless he was a member of that particular craft guild; and then he had to work in his own shop. The guild forced its members to live

on one street or in one section of the town. It regulated the hours of labor, supervised the purchase of all raw materials, inspected the finished articles, and then set a uniform price at which all the goods had to be sold.

Craft Guild Membership through Inheritance. In many places admittance to membership in the guild was made exceedingly difficult except for the sons of guild members, who often inherited the right of membership. A survival of this was still to be found in the United States during the nineteenth century among the window light blowers. One of the rules of their trade union forbade any but the sons of journeymen workers to become blowers. Most of the window light blowers came to this country from Belgium and England.

Three Classes of Workers.

The usual method of becoming a member of a guild was by serving an apprenticeship. In every trade there were three classes of workers. First were the masters who owned their own shops and employed others to help them. They enjoyed full membership in the guilds, and took part in their administration. The second class was composed of journeymen who had learned their trade but for some reason, usually financial, were not yet able to set up a shop of their own. The third class of workers was the apprentice boys, who were learning their trade.



BANNER OF SHOEMAKERS'
GUILD

Guild Membership through Apprenticeship. If a boy wished to learn some particular craft he probably talked it over with his father, and together they would go to the guild officials to see whether there was room for any new members. The guilds were very anxious to keep the membership down, because too many members would turn out more goods than were needed. This overproduction of goods would force the workers to lay off, and bring about hard times. If the guild authorities felt that the business warranted more workers

they gave their approval and the boy was hired out to some master. Here he lived and worked for a period of from three to ten years, receiving his board, lodging, and clothing. When the boy's period of apprenticeship was over he was usually required to make a sample of his work. This was taken to the guild meeting, and if the members considered the workmanship sufficiently skillful the apprentice was made a journeyman, was paid regular wages, and took his place in the guild.

Social Activities of the Guilds. The guild was also a beneficial organization. It cared for its sick members and provided for their widows and orphans. In the churches each guild had its own pews, and recognized some patron saint who was supposed to guide its destinies. One day a year was set aside to honor the memory of this saint. At this time the guild usually gave a miracle or mystery play.



A MYSTERY PLAY

A biblical scene is being presented.

Mystery Plays. The mystery plays originated in the Catholic church, and at first merely represented some biblical scene. There was no acting or talking, the main purpose being to present a living picture of the characters in the Old and New Testaments. This method was used because so few people during this age could read. Later a group of scenes was used and acting was added, but even then no speech was permitted. This dumb acting was called pantomime. As the plays grew more popular they were acted in the church yard, and during the prominence of the guilds they were placed in the hands of these organizations and acted on the town and village streets.

Guild Control of the Plays. Under guild control, songs and dialogs were introduced and an element of humor added. An example of the latter could be found in the story of the Flood, where Noah was often pictured as trying to push the obstinate Mrs. Noah into the Ark. On church holidays each guild was given a scene to act, such as the Garden of Eden, the story of Abraham, Moses, etc. Large wagons were built and elaborately decorated. Each guild tried to outdo all the other guilds. When the play started, spectators could stand along the streets and watch the different scenes as the floats went by. In this way they witnessed the whole story. The mystery plays represented stories from the Bible. The miracle plays pictured the lives of the saints.

The Passion Play. The greatest of all mystery plays is still preserved by the people in Oberammergau, Bavaria. Here every ten years the life of Christ is portrayed by the inhabitants of this little town. Most of the actors are craftsmen, and very skillful in the carving of sacred images and scenes, which they sell to tourists. Their lives are mainly spent in perfecting their acting, and when the play is being given people from all the world visit the little Bavarian town to witness the Passion Play.

The Merchant Guild. The craft guilds soon began to play a very important part in the economic and social life of the towns. The master with the journeymen and apprentices all worked together in the back rooms of the master's home. The front room was used as a store, and here the finished articles were on display for the benefit of prospective

buyers. The masters were not the only merchants in the town. Foreign goods were brought in for sale. The raw materials for manufacturing and the surplus food products from the village found a ready sale among the inhabitants. In order to protect and regulate this trade the merchant guild had been formed even before the craft guild.

Rules of the Guild Merchant. Only members of the guild could buy and sell within the town without being taxed. Foreigners or merchants from other towns were forced to pay a toll before entering the town gate; and the prices at which they must sell their articles were fixed by the merchant guild. They were allowed to sell only on certain days and in certain places. In this way the local merchants were protected.

Guild Control of Its Members. The guild was just as strict with its own members within the town. No merchant was permitted to buy more of any article than he could sell within a limited time. Often someone would try to buy up all of some particular product that was needed by everybody. If he succeeded, being the only person with the desired article and thus having a monopoly of it, he could sell at a high price. When anyone does this today we call it "cornering the market." The guild merchants of the feudal age prevented this to a great extent. The offender was heavily fined or made to suffer some of the cruel punishments that prevailed in those days. The guild also inspected the weights and measures of the merchants, and punishment was meted out to any who were guilty of using false weights or measures.

Thus the guilds, both merchant and craft, exercised a great deal of influence in the towns. They regulated industry and commerce, and played an important part in the social life of their community.

Lombard Merchants become Bankers. It will be remembered that during the early years of Feudalism there was little money in circulation. Men generally traded one product for another. This was the case in most inland cities of western Europe. In Italy, however, where trade was more extensive, and carried on between the East and the West, money was essential. In the Lombard cities, especially, traders from all the world met to buy and sell. This necessitated the use of all kinds of money. The English merchant, for example,

who wished to buy Eastern products must pay in Eastern money. To meet this demand the Lombard merchants became the first great bankers, money lenders, and exchangers of money. Of course, the Lombards charged well for this service.

The Cities Gain Political Rights. We now come to the story of how the cities gained political rights in return for such financial or other aid as they were able to render their overlords. And the beginning of our story takes us back to the struggle between the Empire and the Papacy. During the clash of Church and State the Popes and the Lombard cities made common cause against the Emperor, who, in turn, was aided in the fight by the rich merchants of the German cities. Needless to say, both the Italian and the German cities profited mightily by these alliances.

The Towns Win Charters from the Nobles. During the Crusades the feudal lords, in order to reach the Holy Land, often went by way of Italy, where ships were secured to transport the crusaders. In these foreign countries the nobles would need money, and before setting out they often borrowed it from the guilds, giving some of their land as security. At other times they waited until they got to Italy and then borrowed from the Lombard bankers, at interest, giving as security their feudal estates. Where the nobles had borrowed from the guilds, and as usual were unable to repay them, they either gave up their lands to the guilds or granted them a certain amount of self-government. And sometimes the townspeople would be allowed to fish in the creeks and hunt on the meadows.

In many instances, where the nobles had borrowed from the Italian bankers they secured the money to repay the bankers from their townspeople, and in return allowed them to build town halls and to govern themselves. The towns would be given charters—written documents telling them what they could do and what they could not do. These charters were jealously guarded by the burghers, and when they desired any new rights they gave the bankrupt nobles some more money and wrote the new laws in their charters.

The Town Markets. In most of the towns there were market places where business was conducted from one to three

times a week. The town merchants were required to pay the King or lord of the manor for this privilege. Peasants from neighboring villages were forced to pay a toll before entering the town with their produce. Prices were regulated by the town authorities. Farmers, if caught selling on the sly while going either to or from the market, were taken to the toll booth (the market court) near the town gate for trial and punishment. The size and price of a loaf of bread were fixed by the town authorities, and depended upon the price of wheat. This plan was known as the "assize of bread." Government regulated and controlled trade at this time.

The Fair. The greatest favor that a town could procure was the right to hold a fair. The fairs were such a great source of income to the town merchants that they were willing to pay a good price for the right to hold them. Kings and feudal lords profited by this, since they usually granted permits to the cities that offered them the most money. The town fair lasted in some places an entire month, and was one of the greatest events of the year.

Streets were marked off, and wooden or canvas booths and stalls were erected. Merchants came from distant lands and rented the stalls. Tapestries, silks, and rugs from the East, furs from far away Russia, and wool from England could be bought. Besides these there were local products. The day the fair started all merchants had to be at their booths and all the town shops were closed while the fair lasted. As was usually the case, all prices were fixed. There could be no underselling, price raising, or cut-throat competition. For this reason we still use the term, a "fair" price.

Advantages of the Fairs. Sometimes whole streets were rented by the craft guilds and took their names from the goods sold. "Bakers row" or "the street of the jewelers" made it easy for anyone to find the best of any article desired. In those days, when there were no railroads or great industrial plants, inland towns and merchants could not procure either small or large quantities of distant goods at a week's notice. The fairs offered the only chance to purchase foreign products, and were the most convenient means for merchants to dispose of their goods.



THE FAIR AT NIZHNI NOVGOROD

The cloth market. Though patterns and prices are new, the organization and management are still those of the medieval fair.

Life at the Fairs. Trade was not the only attraction at the feudal fairs. There were acrobats, tumblers, jugglers, and Punch-and-Judy shows. Barkers begged the crowds to come and see their great shows. There were musicians playing their flutes, harps, trumpets, drums, and pipes. In northern France during the twelfth century the *trouveurs* sang or recited their epic or narrative poems, the romances which clustered around the lives and times of Charlemagne, King Arthur, and Alexander the Great. In southern France the *troubadours* went from town to town, or attended the fairs, and entertained with their songs; while in Germany the *minnesingers* sang their poems of love.

Attendance at the Fairs. The fairs were attended by the knights and their ladies from neighboring villages and towns. The peasants with their wives and children gazed in wonder at the display of the merchants and at the marvelous feats of the dancers, wrestlers, and trained bears. Young men and maidens made merry. Feudal lords and abbots from out-of-the-way places bought their supplies for the year.

The Serf's Opportunity for Freedom. The attendance of the masters at these fairs often gave the serfs an opportunity to escape by fleeing to the towns. There was an unwritten law, very general among the countries of western Europe, to the effect that any person who lived in a city for a year and a day could no longer be claimed as a serf.

The Fair at Nizhni Novgorod. In some countries today, where modern commercial improvements have not been introduced, the fair of feudal days still survives. In Nizhni Novgorod (*nyǐzh'nyê nôv'gô-rôt*), in Russia, there are over six thousand little stone shops that are occupied every year by merchants from Asia and Europe. Hundreds of boats ply up and down the Volga River, and its shores are piled with goods ready to be taken to the shops. In 1914 over 100,000 persons attended this fair.

Guild Halls and Cathedrals. There were other activities that interested the people of this epoch besides war, tournaments, guild meetings, mystery plays, markets, fairs, and crusades. This was an age of wonderful architecture. Many of the guild halls built at this time are still standing in Europe. But it is the cathedrals more than anything else



SANTA SOPHIA, CONSTANTINOPLE

Built by the Emperor Justinian, 532-37 A.D. This is an example of Byzantine architecture. Since its capture by the Turks in 1453 Santa Sophia has been used as a Mohammedan mosque.



THE INTERIOR OF SANTA SOPHIA

The many domes, resting one upon the other, constitute one of the unique architectural features of the mosque.

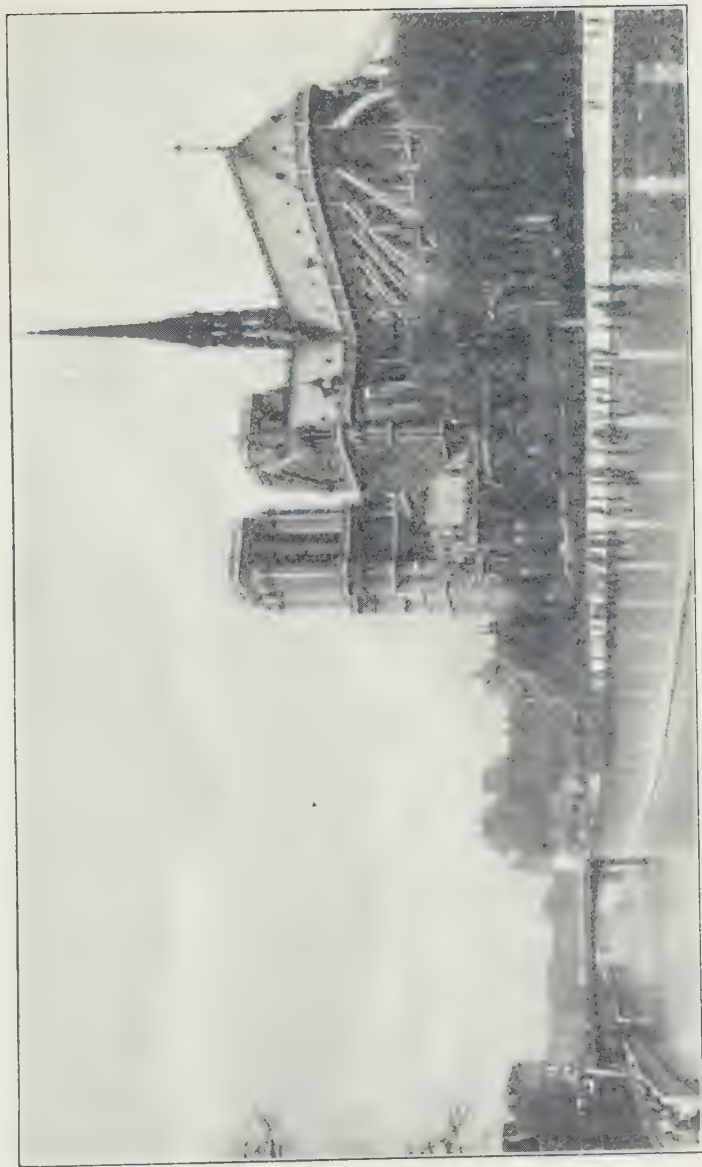
that draw tourists from all parts of the world to see and enjoy the workmanship of these people of bygone days.

Byzantine Architecture. The crusaders visited the church of Santa Sophia at Constantinople, which had been built by order of Justinian in the sixth century. The architecture is known as Byzantine, taking its name from Byzantium, the old name of Constantinople. The main feature of this kind of architecture is the dome. The interior of Santa Sophia consists of a massive central dome, which rests upon half domes, and the half domes rest on still smaller domes. Even with these curves, which hold up the weight and resist the outward thrust, it was necessary to make the walls very thick, and from the outside Santa Sophia appears squatty.

The interior consists of red and green marble columns. Above the arches and balconies, mosaics (figures and patterns made from inlaid glass, stone, or metal) inlaid with gold represent human figures, and scenes from the life of Justinian. In the fifteenth century the Mohammedans conquered Constantinople and used Santa Sophia as a mosque. As their religion forbade the use of images, they covered the mosaics with stucco.

Romanesque Architecture. During Charlemagne's time there was an attempt to revive architecture. The workmen of this period based their ideas on the old Roman arch, and because of this the style is known as Romanesque (rō'măn-šk'). The main features of Romanesque architecture are the rounded arches and the heavy outside buttresses used to reinforce the building. The windows are small, and massive stone pillars on the inside are used to hold up the heavy ceiling. By the eleventh century, however, the architects of western Europe began to copy many of the interior decorations of the Byzantine architecture. The interior of the cathedral at Pisa, Italy, gives a good idea of the beauty of the Romanesque style when developed.

Gothic Architecture. In the twelfth century the architects, especially in France, conceived a new idea of building churches and cathedrals. They invented the pointed arch and the flying buttress, and thus were able to do away with the thick, heavy walls of the Romanesque style. Instead of the small windows this new Gothic (gōth'ik) architecture made it



THE CATHEDRAL OF NOTRE DAME

Situated on an island in the Seine, in the very heart of old Paris, Notre Dame is as rich in history and legend as in architectural beauty.

possible to construct wide and lofty ones. These windows were made of bright colored stained glass, sometimes forty feet in diameter, as in the Rheims cathedral. On the outside of Notre Dame cathedral in Paris the flying buttresses and high spire, with the majestic towers, show this architecture at its best.

Interest of the People in Church Building. Much time, labor, and expense were required in the building of these churches and cathedrals. The cathedrals were not built in a day. Generation after generation aided in the work. Wealthy merchants and nobles contributed large amounts of money, and the poor peasants gave up their pennies. All Christians in western Europe belonged to the one Catholic church at this time. To show their religious fervor and civic pride, rich and poor, young and old assisted in the work. They helped haul the material, and boarded the workmen. People from surrounding villages came for miles to offer, free of charge, any services that might be asked of them.

Life in a Feudal Town. But we cannot judge the life of the masses by the guild halls and cathedrals that we see today. Life in the feudal town presented a different scene. The town was surrounded by a wall, and from a belfry tower a watchman was always on guard to warn the people of an approaching enemy. The streets were narrow and crooked. Some of the homes were of stone, two or three stories high. They had windows, but no modern heating conveniences and only candles for light. Most of the homes were two-roomed, mud-thatched dwellings, that served as a shelter for the stock as well as for the peasant and his family.

Sanitary Conditions. In the business sections many of the upper stories projected so far that opposite neighbors could shake hands across the intervening space. At the rear of the houses there usually were gardens, where games were played and where meals were served in pleasant weather. There was very little sewerage, and the garbage was thrown into the streets. Pigs were allowed to wander over the town, eating whatever they found. These pigs served a double purpose. They saved their owners the expense of feeding them and the town the expense of a garbage wagon and collector.



THE WALLED CITY OF CARCASSONNE

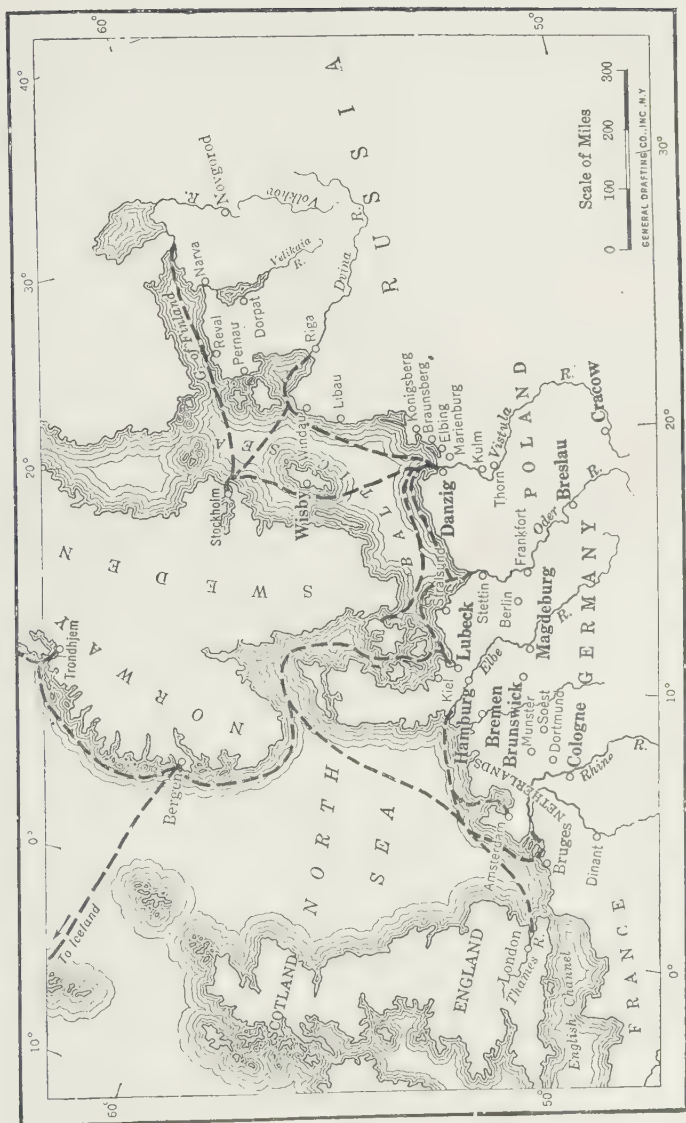
Carcassonne, in the south of France, is probably the finest example of a walled town in existence. Here one finds embodied all the romance of the Middle Ages. Moat and drawbridge, battlemented tower and balconied turret,—all are mute but colorful symbols of the adventures which characterized feudal times.

Police Protection. To be on the streets after dark was dangerous, as they were not lighted. A few men patrolled the towns, with lanterns, and announced the hour in a sort of sing-song. They were known as the "night watch." Thugs and drunks roamed the streets, ready to rob, fight, or murder.

Superstitions. The people were superstitious. They believed in fairies, ghosts, and witches. They thought disease was caused by evil spirits or by Satan. They carried talismans to ward off sickness and the spell of witches, and to bring them luck. These talismans consisted of stones or pieces of metal, with inscriptions or figures carved on them. Charms were also carried, to bring health or strength or to arouse love. Children were told stories of one-eyed monsters (cyclops) and of men with horns and bodies of beasts—and the parents believed the stories they were telling. Such were the people in the feudal age, an age of interesting contradictions.

The Hanseatic League. The dangers which merchants were forced to undergo, as well as the tyranny and restrictions of feudal lords, led to the union of several north German cities. The confederacy thus formed was known as the Hanseatic (hăn'sê-ăt'ik) League. The towns that belonged to this union were called the Hansa or Hanse towns. Ulfilas used the word "hansa" in his Gothic translation of the Bible to mean union. Just when the Hansa towns first united we do not know; but during the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries the Hanseatic League was at its zenith of influence and power. It was an attempt on the part of the cities to break down Feudalism.

Extent of Hansa Factories. The Hansa merchants established factories or trading posts as far east as Novgorod in Russia and as far north as Bergen in Norway. Along the Thames River, just above London Bridge, the German merchants owned large wharves and factories and enjoyed special commercial privileges. This little settlement was known as the "steelyard." The agents and other representatives of all foreign factories were forbidden to marry as long as they remained abroad. The factories were inclosed by strong walls and well guarded. All employees were forced to be in by nine o'clock in the evening.



HANSA TOWNS AND TRADE ROUTES

Commercial Activities of the League. In the early days of the League, Wisby on the island of Gothland in the Baltic, off the coast of Sweden, was the headquarters of the Hansa merchants. Here as high as three thousand men were employed. At all of these trading posts the Germans had their own barracks and large dining halls, and were governed by their own native laws. In England and some other countries they paid well for this last privilege. Many of the Hansa towns gained their complete independence; and Hamburg remained a free city in the German Empire until the latter part of the nineteenth century.

International Trade. The chief source of income for the Hansa merchants was from the herring, found in large quantities in the Baltic. A method of curing these fish had been discovered, and they were in great demand among the people of Catholic Europe on days when the eating of meat was forbidden. From Russia the German merchants brought into western Europe numerous commodities including wax, furs, leather, skins, and tallow. From England, Flanders, and their own German towns they took English wool, Flemish cloths, silks and linens, and German beer. Granite and limestone from Scandinavia were in demand for building purposes; while amber from the Baltic was still prized for making ornaments.

The "Pound Sterling." Lubeck and Hamburg later became the chief cities of the League. The German merchants were recognized over all Europe. Their money was in demand; so much so, in fact, that the English used to demand a pound of the Easterlings' money when they wanted to make a good contract. "Easterling" was the name the English applied to the German merchants, and thus it has come about that the English standard of currency is called "pound sterling."

Political Importance of the League. By the fourteenth century there were probably more than one hundred cities in the Hanseatic League. How many more we do not know, because its members were loath to tell. The merchants would only shake their heads when asked. The Hansa ships sailed the seas in fleets and cleared the waters of pirates. On land the merchants traveled the overland routes in companies, each

man heavily armed. When oppressed by feudal lords the town burghers purchased privileges, and when this did not suffice the league went to war. In the later fourteenth century they defeated the King of Denmark, forced him to pay them tribute, and reserved the right to choose his successors. At times they dictated political policies to the Kings of England.



From a model in the Philadelphia Commercial Museum

HANSEATIC SHIP

In ships like this the Hansa merchants sailed from the Baltic Sea to the Mediterranean, and exchanged goods from the North for those of the East.

Punishment of Offending Members. Every Hansa town had to contribute to the support of the League, and if any of the rules were broken the offending city was fined. A repetition of the offense was punished by temporary suspension from the league and by boycott. The Hansa towns did not unite primarily for war, but in order to protect their commerce this often became necessary. Healthy commerce depended upon peace.

Development of National Feeling. Feudalism was losing its grip during the thirteenth century. Men were tired

of obeying, and of confining their loyalty to petty lords and princelets who no longer protected them, but endeavored to oppress them wherever possible. A national sentiment was developing as times grew more orderly, and Feudalism was doomed. Several factors contributed to its downfall.

The Passing of Feudalism. A dreadful disease swept over Europe during the fourteenth century, known as the "Black Death." One-half of the population of Europe died in one short year. Labor became scarce and many serfs gained their freedom. During the same century an explosive, gunpowder, was used in a battle between England and France, and henceforth steel armor was no longer a protection to knights. The Crusades had broadened men intellectually, and they were ready to break from the narrowness and superstitions of the age. In the fifteenth century a bold mariner sailed across the Atlantic and discovered other lands and wealth. New seaports sprang up, and the power of the Italian cities and the Hansa towns was broken. A new Epoch was dawning, an Era of Enlightenment. Feudalism had served its purpose.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Name four institutions that were drawn into Feudalism and show how this was accomplished.
2. Compare our modern chambers of commerce with the merchant guilds, and the modern trade unions with the craft guilds.
3. Explain the difference between the domestic system of manufacturing and our present factory system.
4. Do you know of any itinerant workers in the United States today? How do they compare with the itinerant workers of feudal times? Why have these occupations continued so long?
5. Compare the social, political, economic, and sanitary conditions of a modern city with those of the thirteenth century.
6. What conveniences and comforts have we in many of our modern homes that were unknown to the people under Feudalism?
7. What benefits are derived from our modern fairs and expositions?
8. Compare the protection afforded by the merchant guilds to the town merchants with the old Babylonian method. What is the modern method?

9. What buildings have you in your community in which everyone has a common interest? Are there any of Byzantine, Gothic, or Romanesque style? Describe any such structures.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Read the following chapters in Van Loon's *Story of Mankind*: (1) The Medieval City; (2) Medieval Self-government; (3) The Medieval World; (4) Medieval Trade. Compare the conditions described in those chapters with present conditions.

II. Chapter XVIII, Vol. I, of Robinson's *Readings in European History* gives many of the original documents pertaining to the people in country and town, and also to the old Hanseatic League.

III. Incidents from the story of *Don Quixote*, by Miguel Cervantes, or Mark Twain's *A Connecticut Yankee at the Court of King Arthur*, give an interesting description of certain feudal customs.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

CHENEY	<i>Industrial and Social England</i>	Macmillan
ASHLEY	<i>Medieval Civilization</i>	Macmillan
QUENNELL	<i>A History of Everyday Things in England</i>	Scribner

EPOCH FIVE

AN ERA OF ENLIGHTENMENT

In Epoch Four we traced the development of Feudalism. We saw how government, church, school, and labor were all drawn into the feudal system. We witnessed the emergence of England, the clash of Church and State, the Crusades, and the life of the people in town and country. It was an age conspicuous for its lack of law and order, an age in which the people had neither opportunity, time, nor inclination for art, literature, science, and the better things in life generally. About the thirteenth century we noted certain influences at work which were gradually to bring about the downfall of Feudalism.

In contrast with those so called "dark ages," an Era of Enlightenment followed. A spirit of nationalism, attended by a sense of security and safety, developed in western Europe. The people had more time to think and to study. Other movements besides the Crusades brought them in contact with Asiatic civilization. A new interest was aroused in the achievements of the earlier civilization of the Egyptians, the Babylonians, the Greeks, and the Romans. This Era of Enlightenment, which we shall follow in this Epoch until the beginning of the seventeenth century, was marked by an intellectual and religious awakening, and by a keen interest in the discovery and exploration of hitherto unknown lands.

CHAPTER XVIII

NATIONALISM IN WESTERN EUROPE

An Era of Enlightenment. Progress in western Europe from the fourteenth to the seventeenth century is indicated in a series of events which, grouped together, form an Era of Enlightenment. The gradual growth of nationalism, and the intellectual and religious awakening aided by the higher culture of Asiatic peoples, are the chief movements to be followed in this Epoch.

Nationalism Defined. Nationalism is the feeling one has that he peculiarly belongs to a certain country; for example, that he is an American, an Englishman, or a Frenchman. This feeling is generally manifested in a common language and literature, in common laws, and in common notions of right and wrong. It is usually restricted to a well defined geographical area, in which there is one desired government for the whole people.

Language and Literature. We have already noticed the beginnings of a common language among the barbarian tribes, as they mingled and fused with the Romans or (in Germany) among themselves. The beginnings of a common literature were found in the old folk-songs, hero tales, and compositions of the troubadours and minnesingers. These legends created common memories among the different peoples and aided the spirit of nationalism. The insecurity and disorder that prevailed under Feudalism offered little opportunity, however, for the expression or improvement of either a language or a literature.

How Feudalism Hindered Nationalism. Common laws and central governments were hard to foster under feudal conditions. In each country there were hundreds of partially independent rulers. Each feudal lord had his own code of laws and maintained his own courts of justice. People living

in one town or fief were considered foreigners in a neighboring town or fief. They were forced to pay toll for using roads and bridges, and were taxed before entering a nearby town with their merchandise. Feudalism bound the lower classes to the soil and gave everyone a fixed status in life. There was a more common feeling between the nobility of different countries than there was between the nobles and lower classes of the same country.



From a woodcut by Albrecht Dürer.

PEASANTS IN CONVERSATION

How the Crusades Aided Nationalism. The Crusades aided the growth of a national feeling. As the armies of England, France, and Germany came in contact with one another there grew up within individuals a feeling of pride in their own country's achievements. The crusaders in the East longed for the familiar scenes of their homelands as they faced hardship after hardship, and their days of absence stretched into months and years. Their old haunts became hallowed memories. A common interest and feeling of friendship arose between men in the Holy Land who lived in neighboring towns, either in England or on the Continent. They looked upon one another as countrymen and not as foreigners.

Henry II, the First Plantagenet. In 1154 Henry II, great-grandson of William the Conqueror, ascended the English throne. In France Henry inherited from his father the dukedoms of Anjou (än-zhoo') and Maine, and from his mother Normandy and Brittany. In addition, he acquired through marriage the large territory of Aquitaine. Besides being King of England, Henry thus controlled more than half of France. He was the most powerful monarch in western Europe. Henry and his immediate descendants are known as the An'gevin or Plantagenet (plăn-tăj'ê-nět) Kings. These



HENRY II

The bit of broom-plant on his scepter is the symbol of the Plantagenet Kings.

names were given because Henry was the count of Anjou, and because his father had the habit of wearing in his helmet a sprig of broom-plant, called in French *Plante-à-genêt*.

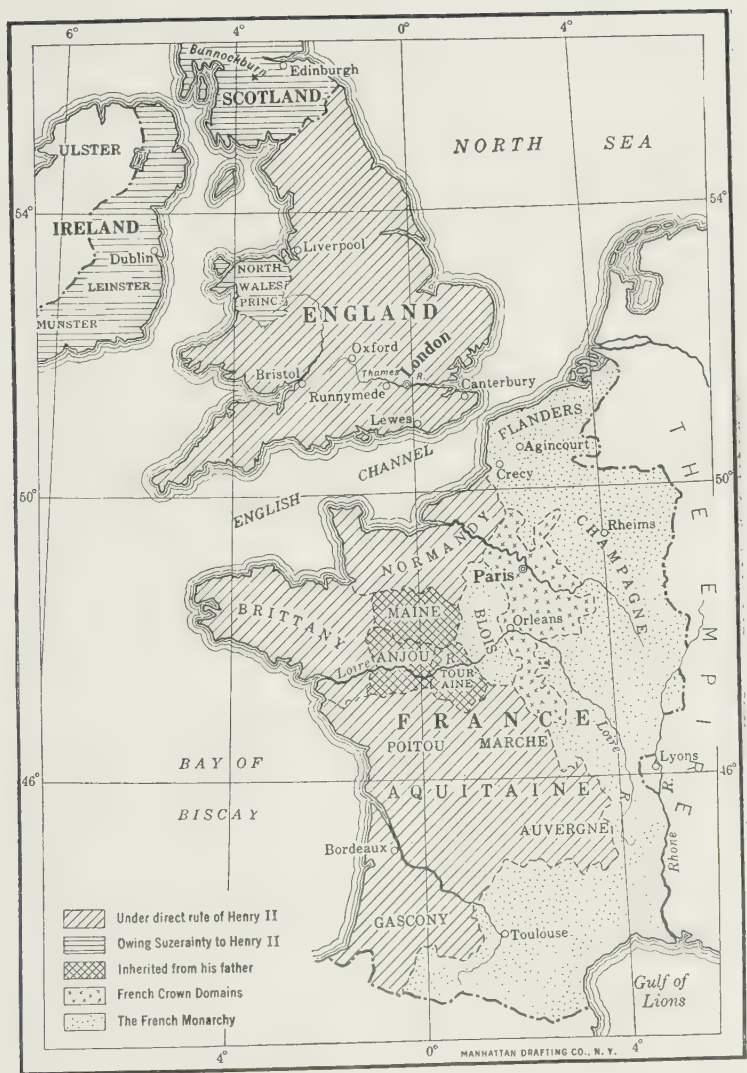
The Beginning of English and French Rivalry. In France the English Kings held their lands as vassals of the French monarch. The French Kings, however, looked with disfavor upon the acquisition of so much of their territory by foreign vassals who were continually growing stronger. The jealousy thus aroused was to bring the countries into a long drawn out

struggle, lasting for nearly three hundred years.

Henry Establishes Order in England. One of the first things that Henry II did was to rid the country of criminals and tear down the castles of the independent robber knights. He substituted order in place of the disorder which had come to prevail. The most important act of Henry was his development of the courts, the jury system, and the common law of England.

Petit Jury. Trial by combat, as we have seen, was the barbarian method of settling disputes. This custom still prevailed in England under the Normans. There were many people, however, who objected to the unfairness of this law of "might makes right." Henry was in sympathy with this objection, and gave tenants the right to have their cases decided by a body of twelve knights who were familiar with the facts. These twelve men were called "jurors," because they swore to tell the truth. This is the origin of our trial by petit (small) jury.

Circuit Judges and Grand Jury. Henry developed a royal court of justice. He sent judges on circuit throughout the kingdom; and at least once a year these judges held court in each county. Further to aid the circuit judges as they passed through their circuits a grand (large) jury, com-



ENGLAND AND FRANCE
Showing the possessions of the Angevin Kings at the time of
Henry II.

posed of not less than sixteen men, was to report to them the criminals within each circuit. At first these reported criminals were sent to the Church to be tried by ordeal. Later, however, the people accused by the grand jury were allowed to have witnesses and to take their cases before the petit jury, which decided whether they were innocent or guilty. If guilty, the judges then sentenced the offenders.

The Common Law and Nationalism. This new legal method helped to make the laws of England uniform. The decisions handed down by the judges were compiled and became the basis of English common law. It was called "common" law because it grew out of the decisions and customs common to the whole kingdom, and was not confined to the town or local laws of feudal barons. Thus a feeling of nationalism was aroused among the people.

Richard Cœur de Lion, 1189-1199. Henry's son, Richard I, known as the Lion-Hearted, was a picturesque figure as a crusader but a sorry sight as a King. He borrowed large sums from his subjects, especially the Jews, whom he often ill-treated; he placed a heavy tax on his people; he sold titles of nobility and church offices; and he sold charters to the English towns. Richard did all this that he might rescue the Holy Land from the infidel Turk.

Dissatisfaction During Richard's Reign. On his way home from the Crusades Richard was captured and held a prisoner by the German Emperor. Philippe II, King of France, who saw a chance to gain the French territory held by Richard, entered into a plot with Richard's brother John to keep him a prisoner. The scheme failed, for Richard secured his freedom by paying a heavy ransom. The money was raised in England, where the churches were stripped of their ornaments and every Englishman gave up one-fourth of his personal property.

Loss of Normandy, 1204. The lack of a strong central authority, the unjust burdens of taxation, and the misery of the people set the stage for the rebellion of the barons under Richard's treacherous brother, John. Shortly after John's accession to the throne he was accused by his feudal overlord, the King of France, of murdering his own nephew. He

was ordered to come to France and stand trial, but refused. Thereupon Philippe seized Normandy.

Growth of Nationalism. The loss of these lands was of great benefit to England. Had the policy of the Plantagenets succeeded, England would have become the least important part of a great continental kingdom. Now the Norman nobles were forced to choose between Britain and Normandy as a place to live. Previous to this the Normans looked down on the English as a conquered people, and the English hated the Normans. Macaulay says: "The two races so long hostile found at last that they had common interests and common enemies." French nationalism also was aided, as it drew within a definite geographical area people with common customs and language.

Tyranny of King John. We have already learned about the quarrel of King John with the Pope and his promise to pay tribute to Rome and to hold England as a fief of the papacy. In addition to this, John extorted large sums of money from his barons. He laid heavy and unjust taxes on the merchants. He imprisoned innocent men and refused them a trial by jury. He even taxed the serfs, and when they could not pay forced them to give up their agricultural implements.

Stephen Langton, Archbishop of Canterbury. John's tyranny led to a rebellion of the nobles and clergy, under the leadership of the Archbishop of Canterbury, Stephen Langton. A council was called to meet near London. Representatives from the whole kingdom gathered to decide what requests were to be made on behalf of the nobles, the clergy, and the common people. Stephen Langton secured a copy of Henry I's Charter of Liberties, and using it as a model a new charter was drawn up and sanctioned by the council. Before they could get in touch with the King he left for France with a small army to try to regain his French possessions. He was defeated and forced to return home.

Magna Carta, 1215. On Easter day, 1215, the council, attended by several thousand armed knights, met the King at Oxford and told him of their demands. He agreed to meet the nobles on June 15, at Runnymede (rŭn'ĩ-mēd), on the banks of the Thames. On that day he placed his hand



From a painting by Ernest Normand, in the Royal Exchange, London

KING JOHN AND HIS BARONS AT RUNNYMEDE

It is said that King John did not actually sign Magna Carta, but sealed it with a large piece of beeswax.

and seal to the charter now known to history as Magna Carta (the Great Charter).

Its Provisions. The Great Charter, written in Latin, provided as follows:

1. No taxes, except the feudal aids, should be levied without the consent of the National Council, which was to consist of the mayor of London and twenty-four appointed barons; all vassals, however, could attend this council.
2. No free man was to be imprisoned or proceeded against except by his peers or the law of the land.
3. Justice should neither be sold, denied, nor delayed.

The second and third laid the foundation of our present law of habeas corpus, which grants to every citizen of the United States a trial by jury. There are sixty-three clauses in Magna Carta, but it is sufficient to say that they guaranteed the rights of the Church, the barons, the freemen, and the serfs, and that the charter reaffirmed the judicial system established by Henry II.

Henry III, 1216-1272. Treachery, intrigues, attempts to break the charter, and another war with France formed the chief political events in England during the rest of King John's life. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Henry III. Westminster Abbey, as it stands today, is mostly due to the efforts of Henry III. This is the only constructive work for which he was personally responsible. But his reign was noteworthy in that it marked the further advance of representative government.

Character of Henry III's Rule. Henry III was even more extravagant than either his father or his uncle Richard. He waged a series of unnecessary and unsuccessful wars. He sold pieces of paper granting the holders the right to extort money from the Jews. He annulled city charters and broke treaties so that he might force his subjects to pay him vast sums to regain them. He ran up a national debt which amounted to millions of dollars. The taxes placed upon the people became unbearable, and added to this a year of poor crops brought about a famine. Thousands of people died and many more found it difficult to eke out an existence.

Battle of Lewes, 1264. The leading barons, followed by the people, rebelled. Henry, with a large force, endeavored to quell the uprising; but his army was defeated at Lewes (lū'is), in Sussex, and he was taken prisoner. The results of the battle of Lewes make it one of the outstanding military events in English history. The following year Simon de Montfort, the King's brother-in-law and leader of the rebel barons, called a Parliament or assembly of the people.

Parliament of Simon de Montfort, 1265. Earl Simon summoned to London all the rebel barons, and the bishops and abbots. In addition, he ordered the sheriff of each county to return two knights "for the body" of his county and two citizens or burghers for every city and borough contained in it. "For the body" meant representation for the whole people. This was the first time that the common, untitled people were allowed to take their places and share in the deliberations of government. True, the burghers at this time were only allowed to take part in questions concerning taxation, but this marked the beginning of the House of Commons and modern representative government.

Death of Simon de Montfort. De Montfort's Parliament had consisted of his own followers only. But later in the same year most of the barons, jealous of his power, deserted him. Edward, Henry's eldest son, rallied them round the royal standard. Simon de Montfort, with a few faithful friends, held his ground but was slain in the conflict.

Model Parliament of Edward I, 1295. Thirty years later this same Edward, then King, called a Parliament to which the representatives of the people were invited. The new Parliament was to be composed of the people's choice without any interference at the elections. Near the close of Edward's life this "Model Parliament," as it was called, was divided into two houses, the House of Lords and the House of Commons. This bicameral (two houses or chambers) arrangement is the foundation of most legislative bodies in modern countries. The House of Commons soon gained the right to share in the making of all laws.

Edward I, 1272-1307. Edward I desired to conquer Wales and Scotland and thus bring all the people of the island of Britain under the English King. Scotland was an independent

kingdom and Wales was nearly so, the latter paying but slight feudal homage to England. Edward decided to subdue Wales first.

Conquest of Wales, 1272-82. The Welsh tribes were led by their King, Llewellyn (loo-ěł'ín) III. Under this brave warrior chief the men of Wales stubbornly resisted the English armies. At last Llewellyn was killed and his followers retreated to the hills, with a vow that they would never accept an Englishman as King. Tradition gets around the difficulty by saying that in one of the strong castles (Carnarvon), which had been built as a fortress by Edward I, his eldest son was born. The little prince was therefore born in Wales. Edward I, with the agreement of the Welsh chiefs, called his heir the Prince of Wales, and as such the eldest son of the King of England is known today. The Welsh remained unwilling and oftentimes rebellious subjects for two hundred years. Then Henry Tudor, the grandson of a Welsh knight, ascended the English throne as Henry VII, first of the Tudor dynasty.

Wars with Scotland.

In 1285 the last ruler of the old Celtic dynasty of Scotch Kings died without an heir. Edward I was asked to choose a King among the several claimants to the throne. He agreed to do this on condition that the King he chose, with all the Scottish nobles, would become the vassals of the English rulers. The Scotch were forced to accept, and John Balliol (băl'i-űl) was appointed King of Scotland as Ed-



CORONATION CHAIR OF THE ENGLISH RULERS

The Stone of Scone, brought from Scotland in 1285, is under the seat.

ward's vassal. Balliol soon broke his feudal obligations and formed an alliance with France to fight England. Edward defeated the allies, and carried the large stone known as the Stone of Scone back to England. This stone was the symbol of the Scottish King's power. On it, so far back that history was lost in myth, the Kings of Scotland had been crowned. By removing this old relic Edward meant to convey the idea that the kingdom of Scotland had come to an end. Today the Stone of Scone still lies under the coronation chair of the English rulers, in Westminster Abbey.

William Wallace. The liberty loving Scotch were not conquered. Under the lead of the Scottish patriot Sir William Wallace the Scots rose against the English. For eight years Wallace kept up his fight for freedom. Sometimes, with only a few followers, he was forced to flee to the hills or glens and hide. At other times, with large armies at his back, he gained notable victories over England. At last Wallace was betrayed, captured by the English, and executed. His head was set on a pike and placed on London Bridge. After his death Wallace became the national hero of Scotland.

Robert Bruce. The struggle was continued by another patriot, Robert Bruce, a noble. Robert Bruce, who had been crowned King of Scotland, met the English armies under Edward II at Bannockburn (băn'ŭk-bŭrn), in southern Scotland, in 1314. Edward's army was almost annihilated, and shortly afterwards England acknowledged the independence of Scotland.

Growth of English Commerce. The reign of Edward III is notable for two events: first, the growth of English commerce; and second, the beginning of the Hundred Years' War with France. Up to this time England had been chiefly an agricultural country. Now the farmers in the east started to raise sheep and export the fleece to the Flemish cities of Ghent and Bruges, both of which were Hansa towns. The skillful workers in those cities wove the wool into fine cloths, which were then returned and sold in the English markets.

Woolen Factories Established. Through the influence of Edward's wife many of the workmen from Flanders—a part of what is now Belgium and northern France—came over to

England. Woolen factories were established in the eastern part of the country. These "factories" were large stone houses, not the modern industrial plants. The wool business grew until it became the chief source of the nation's wealth. To impress this fact upon the English mind a square red sack was filled with wool—the "Woolsack"—and used, as it still is, for the seat of the Lord Chancellor when he is presiding over the House of Lords.

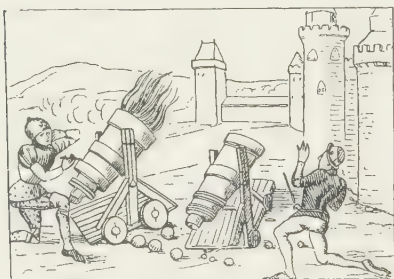
Commercial Causes of the Hundred Years' War. England's trade with the Flemish cities was one cause of the Hundred Years' War. Flanders was a fief of the French King Philippe VI, whose reign marked the end of the old Capetian line of kings and the beginning of the Valois (vá-lwä') line,—so called because Philippe was the son of the Duke of Valois. For commercial reasons the cities of Flanders, which were subject to extortion from feudal lords, wished to form an alliance with England in order to gain their independence from France. The French King, on the other hand, made up his mind to gain absolute control of the Flemish cities.

Other Causes of the Hundred Years' War. Philippe was also jealous of England, because all the French territory south of the Loire River was still controlled by the English Kings. The lands lost by King John, it will be remembered, were north of the Loire. It was hatred of England rather than love for Scotland that had prompted Philippe to aid John Balliol against Edward I. Moreover, his war vessels were attacking and capturing the English wool ships as they passed across the channel to Flanders. Edward III forced an alliance with several of the Hansa towns, claimed the French crown, and declared war on France. The English possessions in France and the commercial interests of the two countries were the real causes for the war, while Edward's claim to the French crown offered a good excuse for it.

Battle of Crécy, 1346. We can note only a few chief events of this long and devastating war. In 1346 Edward III raised an army and transported his troops across the channel. The English were commanded by his young son and heir to the throne, called by the French the Black Prince, because of

the color of his armor. The French greatly outnumbered the invaders when the two armies met at Crécy (krā'sē), near Calais (kāl'ā') the seaport town. The battle was won for the English by their bowmen, made up of the town and country people of England. The French, with their Genoese cross-bowmen hired for the occasion, were no match for these English archers. Commenting on this battle, Green in his *History of England* says: "The whole social and political fabric of the Middle Ages rested on a military basis, and its base was suddenly withdrawn. The churl had struck down the noble; the Bowman proved more than a match, in sheer hard fighting, for the knight. From the day of Crécy Feudalism tottered slowly but surely to its grave."

Gunpowder at Crécy.



AN EARLY CANNON

Gunpowder was also used in warfare for the first time in western Europe, at the battle of Crécy. Cannons were used by the English to annoy the French horses. Montgomery says: "They were laughed at as ingenious toys; but in the course of the next two centuries those toys revolutionized

warfare and made the steel clad knights little more than a tradition and a name."

The Black Death, 1347. It was the year following the battle of Crécy that the Black Death swept over Asia and Europe. This disease found its way into Europe from Asia through the Mediterranean trade routes. It was aided by the unsanitary conditions, already noted, in the towns of western Europe. Its victims were from all classes, rich and poor alike. Crops went unharvested and rotted in the fields. Sheep and cattle roamed the countryside unattended. Hansa and Venetian ships drifted about the Baltic and Mediterranean seas, with no one on board to bring them ashore. From one-third to one-half of the population of western Europe died from this plague.

Its Effects. After the Black Death labor became scarce. Enough men could not be found to till the soil. Free men demanded higher wages; and serfs as well as slaves left their masters and sought work throughout the country, everywhere demanding that wages should be paid them. Parliament passed maximum wage laws, and fugitive laws; but legislation did little to stop the movement for freedom. From now on, the conflict between capital and labor was to become more acute.

Battle of Agincourt. Regardless of the Black Death, the Kings of France and England led their armies to war and more death. For a while France was victorious, and then in 1415 her armies were again defeated, at Agincourt (â-zhǎn-cōor'), in France. The King of France, Charles VI, was insane and his kingdom had been disrupted even before this battle. Taking advantage of these things, the English forced the French to sign a treaty at Troyes, by which it was agreed that the English King should become the ruler of France after Charles VI died.

Siege of Orleans. Upon the death of Charles VI many Frenchmen, dissatisfied with the unjust Treaty of Troyes, decided to stand by the dauphin (title given the oldest son of the French King), Charles VII. So the war dragged on. The dauphin's supporters gradually withdrew. Burgundy, a large territory in eastern France, had already allied itself with the English. Most of France north of the Loire was in the hands of the enemy, and an effort was made to drive the dauphin south of this river. The fortified town of Orleans, on the Loire, was the only obstacle to the English plan. They therefore entrenched themselves around the city, built forts, and with their cannon proceeded to batter down the walls. For six months they laid siege to Orleans, and the city was in desperate straits. If it fell the French cause was lost. The dauphin and his nobles were shamefully inactive, and the brave people of Orleans were almost ready to give up when the city was saved by a sixteen-year-old peasant girl, Joan of Arc (Jeanne d'Arc).

Leader of the French Army. Clad in white armor, on horseback, and carrying a white banner embroidered with lilies, Joan led the French troops to Orleans, in 1429. One



From the painting in the Panthéon, Paris

THE CORONATION OF CHARLES VII

Vaillating and weak himself, Charles was continually urged on by Joan towards what she considered an event of first importance, his coronation at Rheims.

after another the English forts fell, Joan always leading the attacks. Although she carried a sword presented to her by the dauphin, and supposed to have been the one used by Charles Martel against the Mohammedans, she never used it. With her banner held aloft she led every attack. When wounded she refused to have the wound "charmed," the usual method of healing at this time.

Coronation of Charles VII. As Orleans and other French cities were regained the French grew confident. Rheims was captured and the dauphin, conducted by Joan, entered the city. He was crowned in the cathedral, where the coronation ceremony of the French Kings was always held.

Nationalism. Joan of Arc was acclaimed by the common people as the "savior of her country." She appealed to the patriotism of all Frenchmen, and a spirit of nationalism spread over France. Many of the nobles, who resented this because it would mean the destruction of their feudal power, conspired against Joan. Because of their treachery she failed to take Paris. Later, when she was captured by the Burgundians and sold to the English, not even the French King would ransom her.

Death of Joan of Arc, 1431. She was taken to Rouen, put in an iron cage, chained to the wall, tortured, and tormented. The English condemned her to die, saying she was a witch, a heretic, and a renegade. She was burned alive in the public square at Rouen. A little while later the Pope declared her innocent, and in 1920 she was enrolled as a saint of the Catholic church.

End of the War—Its Results. The spirit of the "Maid of Orleans" lived on, and finally, in 1453, the English were driven out of France and retained only the seaport of Calais. The Hundred Years' War was over. The war increased the power of the House of Commons in England, since the Kings became more and more dependent upon the people for funds to carry on the struggle. In both France and England the wars had been fought by all classes, and in this way national pride had been aroused.

War of the Roses, 1455-1485. A few years after the Hundred Years' War the English were drawn into a civil war lasting for thirty years. The families of the Dukes of Lan-

caster and York both claimed the throne. The contest is known as the War of the Roses, because the followers of the House of York, then in power, wore a white rose while the adherents of the House of Lancaster wore a red rose. The war ended in 1485 when the two forces met at Bosworth Field. King Richard III, a Yorkist, noted in history for his intrigues, cruelty, and murders, was slain in this battle, and Henry Tudor, of the house of Lancaster, was crowned on the field as Henry VII, the first Tudor King.



From a mural painting by Henry A. Payne, in the House of Lords, London

THE ORIGIN OF PARTIES

While walking in the Temple gardens Richard Plantagenet, a Yorkist, challenged those who would support him in his quarrel with Earl Somerset "to pluck a white rose from the briar with me." Three followers did so, while Somerset and his sole companion each picked a red rose, the badge of the House of Lancaster.

Results of the War. Fully half of the English nobles were killed during these civil wars. Their estates were either ruined or confiscated. Their wealth and power were gone. The common people were tired of wars caused by rival claimants to the throne, and were willing that a strong ruler, even though wielding absolute authority, should bring them peace. Feudalism in England ended with the War of the Roses and the rise of the Tudors.

The French Estates General, 1302. France did not make as rapid strides in representative government as England. In 1302 Philippe IV of France decided to tax the clergy. The Pope objected and Philippe, in order to make his case appear clear and to convey the idea that his people were back of him, called an Estates General. This was composed of the nobility, the clergy, and the representatives of the towns—the common people, called in France the “third estate.” It met from time to time during the Hundred Years’ War, but was unable to deprive the King of his power to tax the people without their consent, as had the English Parliament.

Louis XI, 1461-1483. When Louis XI came to the throne he started to bring the feudal lords under his power. He forbade them to coin money or to tax their subjects. He ordered them to disband their armies, and one after another Burgundy, Anjou, Maine, and Provence were brought under his control.

Charles VIII, 1483-1498. The next King of France, Charles VIII, gained possession of Brittany through his marriage with the duchess of that country. Thus we see that both England and France, about the beginning of the sixteenth century, had established strong national governments.

Union of Castile and Aragon, 1479. But England and France were not the only countries emerging from Feudalism to Nationalism. The little Christian provinces in Spain had been warring against the Mohammedans since the eighth century. Aragon and Castile (kās-tēl’) were the two chief Christian states. Castile had been at first merely a line of castles (hence its name) erected as a defense against the Saracens. Aragon was situated along the northeastern coast. For centuries petty jealousies had kept these two provinces

from combining in any effective way to drive out the Moors. But in 1469 Isabella, princess of Castile, and Ferdinand, prince of Aragon, were married. Ten years later the two countries united into one kingdom, governed by Ferdinand and Isabella jointly.

Conquest of Granada, 1492. In 1492 the armies of Castile and Aragon captured Granada, the large Mohammedan province in southern Spain. The rule of the Saracens in the Spanish peninsula was ended, and the rise of Spain under Ferdinand and Isabella was assured. It was the same year Granada fell that these monarchs financed the expedition of Christopher Columbus, which was to make Spain the leading power in Europe during the sixteenth century.

Portugal. Portugal, situated in the western part of the Spanish peninsula, had been overrun by the Mohammedans. For a time it was a part of Castile, but became an independent kingdom in 1140. Portugal was to vie with Spain for commercial supremacy in the latter part of the fifteenth century.

Delay of Nationalism in Germany and Italy. Union and nationalism among the German states was delayed until the nineteenth century, because of the ambitions of would-be Emperors. The German Emperors considered themselves the successors of Cæsar, and tried to control both Italy and Germany. The result of their constant wars, as we have seen, was that they controlled nothing.

Austria Acquired by the Hapsburgs, 1273. We have already followed the history of the German Emperors of the Holy Roman Empire down to the fifteenth century. In order to understand the rise of the house of Austria during the same period it is necessary to understand the election methods of the Empire. At the close of what is called the Hohenstauffen period there were seven princes, known as electors, who exercised the right of electing the Emperor. Four of these electors governed German territories, as feudal lords, while three were bishops. The counts of Hapsburg, then becoming powerful, claimed the overlordship of various Swiss cantons. Late in the thirteenth century Rudolph of Hapsburg was chosen Emperor, and shortly afterwards acquired Austria.

The Swiss Confederation. The tyranny of Austria and the Hapsburgs led the Swiss mountaineers to revolt. They formed a defensive union called the Everlasting Compact. It was composed of the mountain communities of Schwyz (shvēts), Uri (ōō'rē), and Unterwalden (ōōn'tēr-väl-dēn), situated along the shores of Lake Lucerne. These three "Forest Cantons" were soon joined by additional cantons in the struggle against Austria. In 1499 they gained their freedom, and formed a loose confederation without much central authority. The independence thus won has been retained to the present time. German, French, and Italian cantons, Catholic and Protestant alike, have become a united nation.

Scandinavia. As we have seen, the Northmen had been leaving their homes in the Scandinavian peninsula ever since the tenth century. By the fourteenth century the country was drained of its best population. Internal weakness was caused by petty feuds between kings and nobles, until the union of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark under the treaty of Calmar, 1397. Margaret of Denmark was to rule all three countries, but each was to have its own constitution and make its own laws. The union failed because of jealousies, but it is important to remember because of the emergence of Sweden during the sixteenth century.

This finishes a brief outline of the growth of nationalism in western Europe. All the countries mentioned will play an important part in the events yet to be told. In order more fully to understand the influence Asia had on Europe during the dawn of the Era of Enlightenment, we must make a hurried survey of the Eastern European and Asiatic peoples. For without them the Renaissance (rěn'ě-sāns'), the Reformation, and the Commercial Revolution would probably have been long delayed.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Despite the differences in language and religion, name at least two circumstances that aid nationalism in Switzerland.
2. What peoples fused to form the modern French, Spanish, Italian, and English languages?
3. In what way was a strong centralized government, even though absolute in its power, an improvement over Feudalism?

4. Describe the duties of the modern petit juries and grand juries in America today. What is a "true bill"? Our Constitution grants us the right of habeas corpus. What is meant by this? Refer to any standard Community Civics or Problems of Democracy text.
5. Like England, our Federal legislative body is bicameral. What is the name of the assemblies in England? In the United States? What powers do the lower houses exercise in both countries? What is the name of the same legislative organization in France today? The *World Almanac* will be found useful for reference.
6. Trace the development of representative government in England through the following institutions: (1) the Witenagemot; (2) circuit judges and trial by juries; (3) the De Montfort Parliament. All references can be found in this chapter and preceding chapters.
7. What delayed the downfall of Feudalism in Germany? In Italy? In the Scandinavian peninsula?
8. One noted historian has said that "Liberty is indebted to bad kings, though to them she owes no thanks." Show how this appears to be true of the following English rulers: William II, John, Henry III.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

- I. Report on the following topics, found in Chapter XX of Robinson's *Readings in European History*, Vol. I:
 1. Froissart's Account of the Battle of Crécy
 2. How King John of France Was Taken Prisoner by the English at Poitiers
 3. The Fearful Devastation Wrought in France by the Hundred Years' War
 4. The Vision of Piers Plowman
 5. Charles the Bold of Burgundy and the Swiss
 6. Louis XI of France

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

HARDING	<i>New Medieval and Modern History</i>	American Book
CHENEY	<i>Industrial and Social History of England</i>	Macmillan

HISTORICAL NOVELS

STEVENSON	<i>Black Arrow</i> (War of the Roses)	Scribner
DAVIS	<i>The White Queen</i> (Romance of St. Louis of France)	Macmillan

CHAPTER XIX

ASIA IN EUROPE

Growth of Nationalism in Asia Retarded. The growth of nationalism in Asia was retarded by the religious beliefs of the people. Brahmanism (brä'măn-iz'm) and Buddhism, both of which emphasized the caste (fixed class) system, gripped India, China, and Japan. The followers of Confucius, in China, also believed in unquestioned obedience to authority, and for that reason made few attempts at political reforms after the death of their great leader. However, despite the above handicap, the scientific advance of China aided Western Europe in the Era of Enlightenment.

To understand the government and society of Asiatic countries it is necessary to have a clear understanding of their religions and of the men who fostered them.

Siddhartha Gautama. Siddhartha Gautama (sê-där't'hä gô'ta-ma) was born about the sixth century B.C. in the northern part of Bengal, India. His father was a rajah (king, prince, or chief) who belonged to the Sakya clan and governed one of the many tribal communities that clustered around the foothills of the Himalaya Mountains. His mother was the daughter of a neighboring rajah, and Siddhartha grew up surrounded by all the luxuries, amusements, temptations, and pomp of his day.

Gautama Renounces a Throne and Becomes a Beggar. At the age of thirty he tired of all these worldly pleasures and became very discontented. He saw other people about him in want and misery. He saw them suffering from loathsome diseases and maimed bodies. And as Siddhartha observed the contrasts of this life he endeavored to find out the cause of so much sin and unhappiness. He was filled with mental torment, but the hustle and bustle of his surroundings gave him little opportunity to meditate on these things. He left his home, wife, and child, and departed from his friends. Siddhartha Gautama, heir to his father's throne, became from choice a beggar.

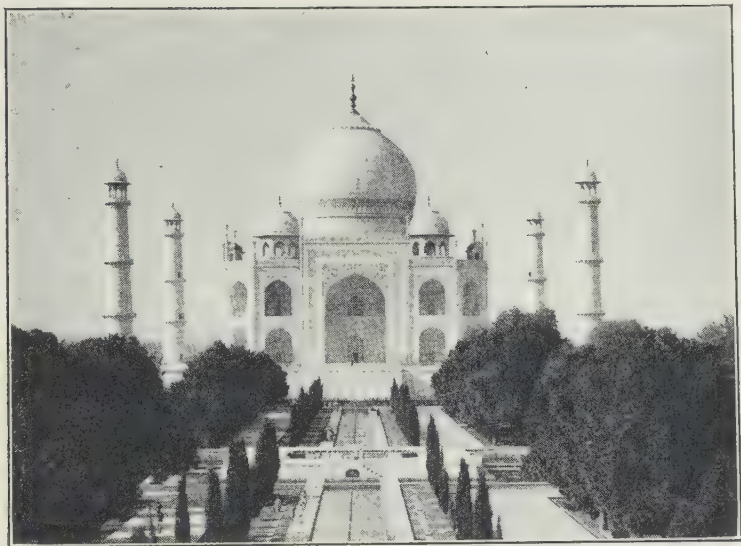
Brahmanism. He sought a solution of his problem in Brahmanism, the prevailing religion in the greater part of India during his time. This religion does not owe its origin to any one person, but is composed of the ancient beliefs, customs, and experiences of the Indo-European people who invaded northern India about 1500 B.C. These beliefs had been collected in a series of writings called the *Vedas* (vā'dâz). The language in which the *Vedas* were written is known as Sanskrit and closely resembles the language of those Indo-European people who had settled in Greece, Italy, and other parts of Europe.

The Caste System of India. As the docile, brown-skinned tribes of India were conquered, one after another, they were subjected to the stern caste system outlined in the *Vedas*. The native Indians, or Pariahs (pă'rî-ă) as they were called, formed the lowest and most despised group. They were the slaves, and not even included within the pale of the four classes of society. In short, they were outcasts.

The highest caste in this Indian society was composed of the Brahmins, who were the priests. Next came the warriors, the Indo-European conquerors. To this class belonged Gautama. During his day these two upper castes were fighting each other for political supremacy. The third caste was made up of the merchants and farmers. The fourth class consisted of the laborers. Everyone was forced to live and die within the caste into which he or she was born, unless forced into a lower caste as a punishment.

Transmigration of Souls. The Brahmins believed in the transmigration of souls. They thought that a person who led a good life on this earth if of a low caste would be reborn to a higher caste. If, on the other hand, a person led a bad life his soul would pass into the body of some animal or insect, the nature of which depended upon the amount of sin committed on earth. We have noticed a similar belief among the early Egyptians.

Asceticism. Actuated by their religion, the more devout people of India tried to become like Brahma. To do this they denied themselves the pleasures of this world. Some went to extremes and practiced asceticism; that is, they went



THE TAJ MAHAL

This mausoleum of an Indian princess is located at Agra, India. The entire building is of white marble, and inlaid with precious stones. It was built in 1632.

among the hills or to some other obscure place, denied themselves physical needs, tortured their bodies, and lived a solitary life of thought.

Gautama Seeks the Light. Gautama sought peace of mind in asceticism. Begging from village to village, he finally arrived at the Vindhya (vīnd'yā) Mountains. Living in caves among these mountains were several hermits. These men were philosophers and teachers, and for a while Gautama remained with them as a pupil. They could offer him nothing, however, that would shed light on the subject that troubled him most. He left the caves and went to a jungle among the same mountains. Here Gautama tortured his body and denied himself food and sleep. He became a physical wreck, but still he received no light on his problem—the cause of misery and sin. He became famed for his holiness, but in this he found little satisfaction.

Gautama under the Bo Tree. For six years Gautama lived the life of an ascetic and taught all those who desired to listen to him. At the end of this time he was still dissatisfied, so he dismissed his followers and went to a nearby village and begged something to eat. He then went to rest under a large bo tree (a genus of the fig). Here he sat all day and far into the night. Some accounts state that seven times seven days he remained under the bo tree. All of his old desires and temptations came upon him, and then suddenly he saw the light. Brahma revealed himself to Gautama. Ignorance was the cause of all evil and misery. Submission and meekness were the ways to happiness.



BUDDHA

This bronze statue, located in Kamakura, Japan, is nearly fifty feet high. In the center of its forehead is a circular lump of silver weighing thirty pounds.

The Buddha. Gautama returned to his companions and told them that mingling with their fellows, and not seclusion, was the way to do the most good. He advised them to care for their bodies and not weaken them, for in order to aid their more unfortunate fellow men they should be physically fit. At first his fellow ascetics deserted him. He sought to break the ideas and customs of the age—which usually gets people into trouble. He was considered a weakling and a backslider. Undaunted, though deserted, Gautama remained true to his ideals. Finally his former companions returned and listened to his teachings, and then they proclaimed him the Buddha—the Enlightened One.

The Teachings of Buddha. Buddha taught that there were three great evils: the first, self-indulgence; the second, ill will; the third, greed for wealth. "All of these," he said, "must be overcome." For the next forty years Buddha went up and down the Ganges. He preached his doctrine in villages and towns. The Brahman priests had taught that only the upper castes were worthy of the teachings of the *Vedas*, but Buddha said that transmigration was open to all classes. He taught that all men should be companionable. He talked to laborers and Pariahs as they worked among the irrigated rice fields or tended their other crops and herds. The poorer people flocked to him, for he offered them hope. The Brahminist priests and upper classes hated him; his teaching would break up their social order. They did everything possible to stop the spread of his doctrines.

The Buddhist Countries. There is no God in Buddhism, no beginning and no end. The Buddhists believe in the transmigration of souls; therefore they protect the lives of all animals and insects, for they might be the temporary abodes of souls. Large and beautiful temples or pagodas adorn the countries where Buddhism holds sway. By the ninth century A.D. the disciples of Buddha had carried his message into Siam, Ceylon, China, and Japan. These countries, more than India, became the stronghold of Buddhism. At the present time there are about one hundred million Buddhists in the world.

Confucius, 551-478 B.C. Confucius, the great Chinese teacher and philosopher, was born in the sixth century B.C., in the present province of Shantung (shǎn'toōng'), China. He was therefore a contemporary of Buddha. The Chinese Empire at this period was in a state of disorder. Civil war among the different states and rulers had brought about a condition very similar to that of western Europe during feudal times.

An Administrator. At the age of nineteen Confucius was appointed an inspector of agriculture in one of the districts of his state. He did everything possible to help the farmers and laborers. He suppressed lawlessness and found work for the idle. Conditions within his district became so improved that he gained quite a reputation as an administrator. Shortly

after this his mother died. He grieved over her loss for he loved her deeply. Moreover, his early training had been under her direction. Following an old Chinese religious custom, which had been almost forgotten in his day, he went into retirement for three years mourning his loss.



CONFUCIUS

The Moral Teachings of Confucius. As Confucius studied the old moral and religious teachings of his ancestors he became convinced that if men would follow some of these precepts order would supplant disorder within his country. With this in mind he established a school of moral philosophy and taught the laws and customs of his day. Many pupils joined his school, and a great many of his sayings were published. One of the most familiar reads: "What you do

not wish done to yourself, do not do to others." Among other things he taught reverence for one's parents.

The Classical Literature of China. Confucius traveled throughout China, studying the laws and conditions of the people. He collected and wrote a great deal about the earlier history of his country. He edited the odes and improved the music to which they were sung. He believed that a better government could be possible only when the people who made up that government were better, and he labored with this end in view. For centuries the classical literature of China has consisted of the nine books of Confucius. Some of these he merely abridged, a few he wrote himself, and the rest were composed by his followers.

Confucianism as a Religion. As a teacher Confucius laid down a set of rules for good conduct. He was a political and social reformer, and made no claim of a

WRITINGS OF
CONFUCIUS

An inscribed stone said to bear the writings of Confucius, in Peking, China.

new religion. Upon his death, however, he was venerated. Temples were built in his honor throughout Chinâ; and Confucianism (kǒn-fū'shǎn-iz'm), stressing ancestor worship, became the religion of millions of people. At present there are about 300,000,000 followers of Confucius in China and other parts of Asia.

Eastern Europe. The growth of nationalism in eastern Europe was submerged by the Mongol, Tartar, and Turkish invasions from Asia; and to this subject we must now turn our attention.

Bulgaria: First and Second Empires. About the seventh century A.D. the Bulgars, kinsmen of the Huns, settled south of the Danube in what is now Bulgaria. The Bulgars fused with the Slavs and adopted their speech and customs. In the ninth century they conquered many of the surrounding people, and their rulers and leading families went to Constantinople to attend the schools and universities. Under Simeon the Great the first Bulgarian Empire was established. Commerce was fostered and agriculture flourished. The Bulgars forced the Byzantine Emperor of Constantinople to pay tribute until they, in turn, were subjected by these Greek rulers. For two hundred years Bulgaria remained a part of the Greek or Byzantine Empire. Bulgaria then rebelled, gained its freedom, and until the middle of the thirteenth century again predominated over the Balkan states.

Stephen Desau, Czar of Serbia, 1331-55. The fall of the second Bulgarian Empire was due to the gradual rise of the Serbs, a Slavic people located in the western part of the peninsula. Stephen Desau was the greatest ruler Serbia ever had. He defied both the Patriarch of Constantinople and the Pope of Rome when he established the Serbian Church as a patriarchate, and refused to acknowledge the spiritual supremacy of the Papacy. He had his own Patriarch crown him Czar (Cæsar) of the Serbs, Bulgars, and Greeks. He conquered most of the Balkan states and defeated the King of Hungary. The early part of the fourteenth century saw Serbia mistress of the Balkans. But at this time the Ottoman Turks, who had menaced eastern Europe, were preparing for the conquest of the entire peninsula. To understand future

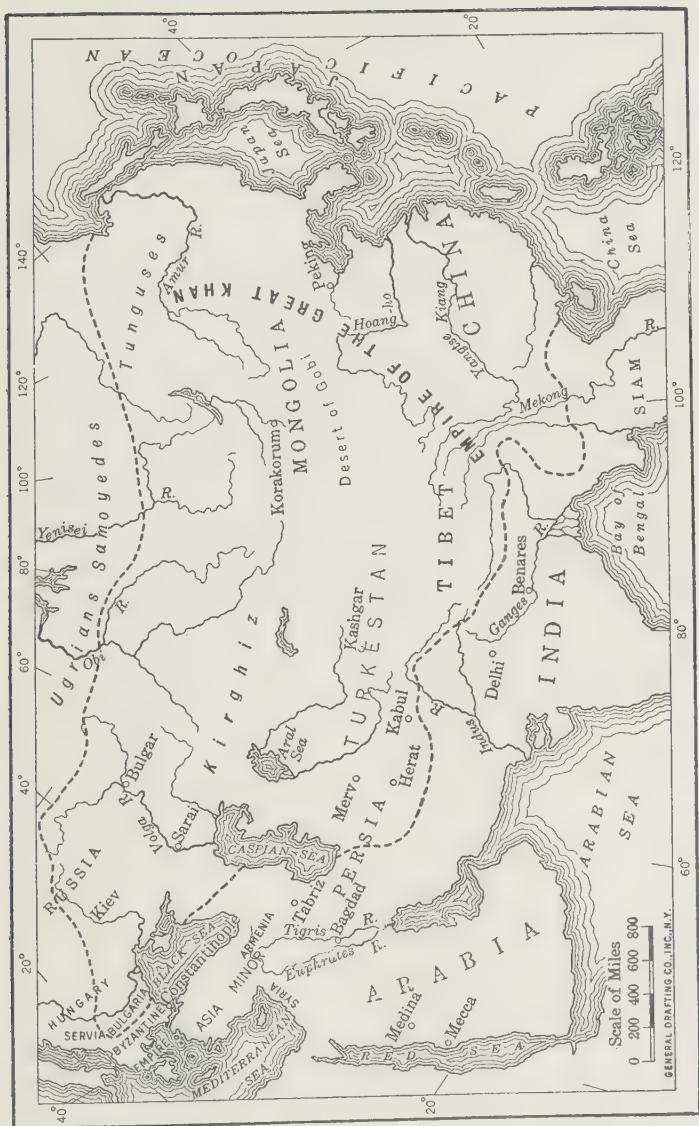
events in Europe we must follow the history of those Asiatic peoples, the Mongols and Turks.

The Mongols. To the north of the Great Wall of China, above the Gobi Desert and around its oases, lived the Mongols, a yellow race. Their old home is still called Mongolia, and the yellow race takes its name Mongolian from them. These Mongol tribes roamed over the steppes of Asia, seeking pasture lands for their horses, oxen, sheep, and camels. They lived in tents and the men were trained for the saddle and for war. They were ruthless, cruel, and fond of plunder, like many of the barbarians we have met.

Jenghiz Khan, 1162-1227. At the dawn of the thirteenth century the Mongol hordes were united under one powerful chieftain, Jenghiz Khan (jě'n'g'iz kăn'). The word khan is the Mongolian equivalent of chief ruler or king. Jenghiz Khan conquered or allied himself with the Tartar tribes in the West. He then began the most remarkable and extensive conquest in all history.

Jenghiz Khan in China. The Chinese Empire at that time was engaged in another civil war. The northern part of the country was ruled by one dynasty while the southern part was governed by another. Jenghiz Khan and his troops defied the Great Wall of China, overran and subdued much of the northern Chinese Empire, and captured Peking. Jenghiz established his capital in Mongolia, and there he gathered scholars and administrators from China. From them he probably learned the use of gunpowder and better methods of administering the affairs of his people.

Mongol and Tartar Conquests in Europe. From northern China he led his conquering hordes into Turkestan and Persia. Cities and villages were destroyed and the inhabitants massacred. The armies of Jenghiz then defeated the Russians north of the Caspian Sea, and appeared in Europe along the Black Sea. In 1237 the Mongol leader died, but his successors carried on the invasions. They overran most of Russia and made it a tributary of the Mongols. Because of this, Russia long remained cut off from western Europe, and adopted many customs and ideas of the East. Hungary was ravaged, and the Poles and Germans were almost annihilated in a battle against the Tartars and Mongols.



ASIA IN THE TIME OF JENGHIZ KHAN

Mongol Conquest of China. How far these conquests would have continued, and what would have been the fate of Europe, no one knows; for the Mongol armies were suddenly recalled. Their forces, which had been left in Asia to conquer the southern part of China, were in need of help. Then, too, the Mongol leaders were quarreling among themselves as to who should be the Great Khan. When the victors gathered in Asia they chose a khan, and shortly afterwards conquered the southern Empire of China. The North and South were then united, and for nearly a hundred years the Mongol Emperors governed China as the Yuan (yōō-än') dynasty.

Kublai Khan. The founder of this dynasty was Kublai Khan (kōō'blī kǎn'), who established his capital at Peking and ruled from 1259 to 1294. The Mongols in China fused with the Chinese and soon lost their original traits and identity. Kublai was the nominal ruler of Persia, Syria, Asia Minor, Russia, portions of Turkestan and India, and all of China. The dominions of Alexander the Great, Julius Cæsar, and Napoleon Bonaparte fade into insignificance when compared with the amount of territory included in this great empire.

China in the Days of Kublai Khan. Kublai Khan united the two hostile Empires in China. He was anxious to learn, and he encouraged literature, science, religion, and commerce. Peking was filled with scholars from India, Arabia, and Constantinople. Buddhist priests and followers of Confucius mingled. Christians and Mohammedans were welcomed by the Mongols. Merchants from Europe and Asia elbowed their way through the crowds in order to purchase the products of Chinese craftsmen. Peking in those days must have resembled our great metropolis, New York City.

He Sends for Christian Missionaries. It was at the court of Kublai Khan that the two Polo brothers, merchants from Venice, were received with great favor. Kublai was much interested in the story of their country along the Mediterranean Sea. He was curious about its government and religion. He appointed the Polos to official positions and later sent them as his personal envoys to the Pope. Kublai desired to gain more knowledge of the people and customs of western Europe. In this way, he thought, a better feeling be-

tween the East and the West would be created. He wanted the Pope to send one hundred men—scholars, teachers, and missionaries—to instruct the people of China in the beliefs and practices of the Christian religion. Unfortunately, as we see it, the Pope was too busy fighting with kings and emperors to pay much attention to Kublai. Two Dominican friars were sent, but for some unknown reason they turned back.

Marco Polo, 1254-1324.

The Polos visited their home in Venice. Here one of them, Nicola, found that his wife had died and that his fifteen-year-old son, Marco, was living with relatives. The two brothers, with young Marco, returned to the court of Kublai Khan. The Emperor became very fond of Marco and appointed him his special envoy. He sent him on far journeys throughout the Empire, into parts of India, and even to Cipango (Japan). Kublai also appointed Marco Polo governor of one of the large cities in China, a

position which he held for three years. He was also attached to the Imperial Council, and this fact is recorded in old Chinese records. For sixteen years the Polos remained in China, often longing to return to Venice; but the Great Khan desired them to remain and would not sanction their return.

An opportunity to go home presented itself in 1292. The Khan's grandson in Persia had sent to China for a wife, and the Polos were ordered to accompany the princess and escort her to the Persian ruler. Going by sea, the party was two years in reaching its destination. After fulfilling their mission the Polos returned to Venice.



RETURN OF THE POLOS

Marco, his father, and his uncle return to Venice after twenty-six years in the Orient. At first they are denied admission to their home.

Rusticiano and the Travels of Marco Polo. Marco Polo was wealthy and popular. A few years after his return to Venice that city went to war with Genoa and he enlisted in the Venetian navy. In one of the naval engagements that followed, the Venetians were defeated and Marco was taken prisoner and confined in a prison at Genoa. While there he told of his travels and adventures in Asia to a man by the name of Rusticiano, who wrote them down. *The Travels of Marco Polo* can be found in many of our libraries. It tells of the large cities and of the manufacture of silk cloths and gold ornaments. It describes the beautiful vineyards, gardens, and farms; the temples of Buddha and Confucius. It tells of the wealth of Japan.

Effects of His Travels. The people of western Europe were just passing out of the so-called Dark Ages in 1300, but a century later they read with keen interest and curiosity of the travels of Marco Polo. They doubted much of his story. But when the Portuguese sailed around Africa, seeking a water route to the Far East, they were also instructed to locate if possible the reputed Empire of Prester John. And Columbus was seeking a shorter and easier way to those lands described by Polo when he discovered America. These events will be discussed later.

What Europe Gained from Asia. Marco Polo was not the only person of western Europe who had visited and come in contact with the Asiatic peoples. As we have seen, merchants, travelers, and Christian missionaries had mingled freely with those people; and they gradually introduced from the East gunpowder, the compass, the printing press, and a method for manufacturing paper. But it was Rusticiano's book that fired the imagination of Christendom.

The Ming Dynasty. After the death of Kublai Khan and his immediate successors, the Ming dynasty of original blood came into power and expelled most of the foreigners within their country. They began the policy which to a great extent was to separate China from the western world for more than four hundred years.

The Ottoman Turks. While Jenghiz Khan was in the midst of his European conquests Turkish tribes from central Asia fled before his advancing armies and finally settled in

Asia Minor. They were sheltered by their kinsmen, the Seljuk (sĕl-jōōk') Turks, and converted to Mohammedanism. The Mongol invasions had broken the power of the Seljuks. About 1300 A.D. the newly arrived Turks banded themselves together under a powerful chief, Othman, and declared their independence of the Seljukian Sultan. They are known in history as the Ottoman Turks, taking their name from Othman. As heartless and cruel as the Mongols, they now began a series of conquests that have bred ill feeling in Europe down to our own day.

Timur the Lame and the Moguls in India. The Ottoman Turks conquered the Seljuk Turks and took possession of Asia Minor. For a while they themselves were almost subjected by a Tartar chief, Timur (tē-moor') the Lame. Tamerlane sacked and burned one city after another in Asia Minor. He defeated the Turks and gained control of the whole country after murdering thousands of people. Then, leaving as quickly as he had come, he marched away and invaded India. In 1525 his descendant Baber (bä'bĕr), established the Mogul (Mongol) Empire of India, with its capital at Delhi.

Turkish Conquests of the Balkans. The retreat of Tamerlane and his Tartars into India left the Ottoman Turks in possession of Asia Minor. In great numbers these Turks then crossed over the Dardanelles into Europe. They fought their way around the country north of the Black Sea and appeared in the Balkan peninsula. They captured Adrianople, defeated the armies of Stephen Desau, and conquered Bulgaria, Serbia, and the entire Balkan peninsula except Constantinople. They forced the Balkan states to give them each year, as tribute, thousands of young boys. These the Turks trained for war, converted to the Mohammedan faith, and used as shock troops in their armies. These former Christians, called Janizaries (jăn'ĩ-zâ-rĩz), were the bravest and most fearless soldiers of the Turkish forces. Many of the Sultans' successes were due to their Janizaries.

Submergence of the Balkan States. From the fourteenth to the nineteenth century the history of the Balkan states was to be the history of Turkey in Europe. But the spirit of nationalism that had already been kindled in the breasts of the Balkan peoples was never extinguished by the Turks.

We shall understand the depth of that feeling as we watch these states, despite all opposition, emerge again in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

Constantinople in History. In the middle of the fifteenth century Constantinople remained as the last vestige of the Eastern Roman Empire. It had withstood the attacks of the old Visigoths, Ostrogoths, and Huns. The Mohammedan Arabs and the Northmen had battered at its walls, and the Seljuk Turks had forced it to call for the aid that began the Crusades. The fourth of these Crusades resulted in the capture of the city (1204) by the Venetians, but it regained its independence sixty years later. After this the city was forced to defend itself from the continual attacks of the Bulgars and Serbs. And now the Ottoman Turks were at its gates. It was weakened and its population had grown corrupt.

Fall of Constantinople, 1453 A.D. For two months Constantinople was besieged. The inhabitants could hold out no longer. At midnight on May 29, 1453, the Emperor Constantine went to the church of Santa Sophia and received the Holy Sacrament for the last time. Early the next morning the Sultan Mohammed II entered the city. The Janizaries formed the vanguard. The Emperor refused to flee and perished during the massacre. So fell the city of Constantinople. The precipitation of the Mongols, Tartars, and Turks upon Europe was the last noteworthy invasion from the Great Eurasian Enclosure.

Russia. The name Russia comes from the word Russ, a name applied to the Northmen by the Finns when those old vikings settled in Novgorod (nôn'gô-rôt), under Rurik, in the ninth century. During the Mongol and Tartar invasions Russia consisted of a number of principalities.

Ivan, the Great, 1462-1505. After a time the principality of Muscovy, with its capital at Moscow, conquered and united most of the country. In 1480 Ivan III (the Great) of Muscovy broke the grip of the Mongols over Russia, and refused to pay them tribute any longer. He annexed the old Rurik government of Novgorod, which included Finland. He married the niece of Constantine, the last of the Eastern Emperors, who had died so nobly when his city was con-

quered. Ivan, upon his marriage, adopted the old Byzantine coat of arms, the double-headed eagle. His reign marks the beginning of the Russian Empire.

Ivan the Terrible, 1533-1584. His grandson, Ivan IV (the Terrible), adopted the title of Tsar, supposed to be a contraction of the word Cæsar. Ivan IV claimed this right through his relationship to the Eastern Emperors, descendants of the Cæsars.

We have now followed in brief outline the trend of world events in Asia and eastern Europe up to the fifteenth century. By that time the Renaissance in western Europe was well under way. We shall take up the story of that movement in the next chapter.



IVAN THE TERRIBLE

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Locate the Himalaya and Vindhya mountains; the Gobi Desert and Mongolia; Ceylon, Siam, Japan, India, Arabia, and China.
2. In what way does Confucius resemble Socrates? Describe the work of each.
3. When did the Greek Church break away from the Roman Church and why? See Chapter X.
4. Name some of the Great Slavic nations of Europe today; some of the Mongolian nations in Asia.
5. Distinguish between the Mohammedan Arabs, the Seljuk Turks, the Ottoman Turks, the Mongols, the Tartars.
6. Describe a modern Gypsy tribe.
7. Look up the life of the people of Iceland and discuss it.
8. Compare the caste system of India with the feudal society of the twelfth century in Western Europe.
9. Compare the route taken by the Ottoman Turks in the conquest

of Greece with the route of Xerxes. See Chapter VI of this book.

10. Write a composition explaining how Europe was benefited at this time by its contact with Asia. This might also be shown by the use of a chart, a picture, or a cartoon.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Read chapters in *The Travels of Marco Polo*, found in almost any library. An interesting book is Noah Brooks' *The Story of Marco Polo*.

II. From the *World Almanac* locate and give the present political status of the following countries: India, China, Japan, Russia, Finland, Bulgaria, Serbia, Greece, Ceylon, Siam.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

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History of India

Allison

CHAPTER XX

THE RENAISSANCE

Summary of the Old Classical Culture. The early civilization of the Nile Valley and the Fertile Crescent had been handed on to Greece and then relayed to Rome. For a time we watched Rome nurture and improve upon its inheritance. We saw manufactures, commerce, and law develop. We saw literature, art, and science flourish. And then in the fifth century we witnessed the decline of all these things. We saw them buried beneath the onrush of the barbarian invasions during the Age of Fusion. We saw them neglected during the disorder of the Age of Feudalism.

Meaning of the Renaissance. In the fourteenth century the old classical culture was revived by that movement in history known as the Renaissance. The word itself is French, and means rebirth, or revival. In its broader sense it comprises all the movements mentioned in the Era of Enlightenment: the growth of nationalism, the Reformation, and the

period of discovery and exploration termed the Commercial Revolution. In its narrower sense, and the one used in this chapter, the Renaissance was the revival of the old classical literature, learning, art, and science which began in Italy and spread across the Alps throughout western Europe. It lasted from the fourteenth to the seventeenth century.

Retarding Influences upon Higher Education. The danger and chaos of the feudal period gave men little opportunity to think of higher education. There were other things, moreover, that retarded constructive thinking during those centuries that preceded the Renaissance. Chief among them were the attitude of the church authorities and the Inquisition.

Attitude of the Church. Before the twelfth century learning in most cases was confined to the church schools. The statements made on all subjects were first sanctioned by the church officials, after which they were to be accepted without question by everyone. If any one doubted or questioned these statements openly, he was called a heretic and perhaps accused and tried for heresy. The penalty for such a crime was often death.

The Inquisition. The Dominican and Franciscan friars aided the Pope in his fight against heretics; but the most effective instrument to root out heresy was the Inquisition, a papal court composed of church officials. At first these Inquisition courts consisted mostly of Dominican friars, who traveled from one district to another. When they arrived in a community they announced thirty days' grace, which meant that a period



From an old woodcut

ORTHODOXY VS. HERESY

The orthodox writer in the center is an Italian abbot. Only one angel helps, while four demons tempt.

of thirty days was allowed for all heretics to come and confess. The people who took advantage of this were usually excused with some slight punishment. After the days of grace had elapsed, the accused and unrepentant were tried. During the early days of the Inquisition the names of the accusers and witnesses were concealed. But long after the accused were allowed to have witnesses it did them little good, for few men cared to champion in public a person on trial for heresy. The most cruel torture was used to force people to confess, regardless of their innocence.

In view of these facts it is no wonder that men hesitated about advancing their own ideas. But in the universities, about the thirteenth century, a few of the more courageous Schoolmen began to question and dispute certain statements that had been sanctioned by the church.

The Universities. Universities had been established by the Arabs in Spain at an early date. The Greco-Arabian University at Salerno, in southern Italy, had long been famous for its course in medicine. In other parts of western Europe universities were founded in the eleventh and twelfth centuries. The Crusades gave an impetus to the university movement. The western world came in contact with the higher education of the East. It saw the great schools training men for medicine, law, and other lines of work. The people of the West now desired a broader education than that given in the cathedral schools. In the wake of this demand, teachers banded together and formed a corporation called in Latin *universitas*, hence the name university.

The University of Bologna. One of the most famous of the early universities was that of Bologna (*bô-lôn'yä*) in Italy. It was founded in 1088. At first it taught law only, but later it added arts and science to its curriculum. By the middle of the thirteenth century it had an enrollment of over 10,000 students, men and women.

The University of Paris. The University of Paris was founded about the same time as that of Bologna. It was noted for theology, and its faculty and students were given many of the privileges of the clergy. Both the Pope and the King of France looked with favor upon this institution. Some of the universities were independent of the Church, but

the one at Paris was a part of the old cathedral school of Notre Dame.

Life at the University of Paris. McCabe, in his life of Peter Abelard (ăb'ĕ-lărd), describes the life at the University of Paris during the twelfth century as follows: "At five or six o'clock each morning the great cathedral bell would ring out the summons to work. From the neighboring houses of the canons, from the cottages of the townsfolk, from the taverns and hospices and boarding houses, the stream of industrious students would pour into the enclosure beside the cathedral. The master's beadle, who levied a precarious tax on the mob, would strew the floor of the lecture hall with hay or straw, according to the season, bring the master's textbook—with the notes of the lecture between the lines or on the margin—to the solitary desk, and then retire to secure silence in the adjoining streets. Sitting on their haunches in the hay, the right knee raised to serve as a desk for the waxed tablets, the scholars would take notes during the long hours of lecture (about six or seven), then hurry home—if they were industrious—to commit them to parchment while the light lasted."

Degrees. Students from all over Europe attended the universities, and after they had studied for a required number of years they were permitted to take an examination. If they passed they became masters, and were admitted to the teachers' guild and permitted to instruct others. Finally, the degree of master of arts (M.A.) or doctor of philosophy (Ph.D.) was given to successful students, whether they taught or not. Both degrees were then of equal rank.

Scholasticism. Within the universities, confined mostly to the departments of theology, there grew up an educational system called Scholasticism. This was a combination of theology and philosophy. Through the Arabs western Europe gained its first knowledge of Aristotle. His logic, or method of reasoning, had been translated from the Arabic into Latin. The Schoolmen were primarily Churchmen, and had been taught from their youth up not to question the statements of the Church. It was their duty to strengthen the religious faith of the people by developing the intellect. Faith was considered above reason; that is, the scholastics never asked.

"Are these things so?" but always, "*Why* are they so?" They believed that people ought to have faith, first of all, and then they would gain knowledge. They did not believe that faith can come through the knowledge we have of a subject.



PETER ABELARD

The famous Schoolman of the University of Paris.

Peter Abelard, 1079-1143. One of the most famous of all Schoolmen was Peter Abelard, the son of a noble in Brittany. At an early age he attended the University of Paris and took up the study of logic and theology. At the age of twenty-two he became a master and began to teach. His fame spread and thousands came into his lecture room from all parts of Europe. He published several books, but the important one was entitled "*Sic et Non*" (Yes and No). In this book Abelard dared to break from the current system of learning. He asked, "Should human faith be based upon reason, or no?" His answer was, "Through doubting we come to inquiry and through inquiry we per-

ceive the truth; . . . constant questioning is the key to wisdom." By this he meant, do not accept the statements of the old schools until you, yourself, are satisfied that those statements are true.

Condemned as a Heretic. Through the influence of Saint Bernard, Abelard was condemned as a heretic, and a few years later he died broken in health. His later life was saddened because of his forced separation from his beautiful wife, Heloise, one of his former students whom he had married

secretly despite the church law which demanded celibacy on the part of its clergy.

Roger Bacon, 1214-1294. Scholasticism produced keen debaters, and gave us our foundation for modern philosophy; but it offered little for the practical minds of men like Roger Bacon, in England, who lived about one hundred years after Abelard. Bacon was educated at the University of Paris. He received the doctor's degree in theology and philosophy, and for a time lectured in the University of Oxford, England. He later gave up philosophy and turned to mathematics and science. He became a severe critic of Scholasticism.

A Great Writer and Scholar. Bacon held that men should investigate the forces of nature for themselves, instead of taking the word of Aristotle for everything. He read the old Greek and the Arabic in the original. He understood the composition of gunpowder, and the use of the magnetic needle. He designed a telescope and believed, as did the ancients, that the world was round. His work was hindered because of the beliefs of his day. He was considered a magician, and ordered to cease his teachings and writings. Pope Clement (klēm'ěnt) IV, however, encouraged him, and under this Pope's protection he produced some of his greatest books. But after Clement's death Bacon was imprisoned for fourteen years by the Franciscan order, for attacking Scholasticism.

Some of His Predictions. In one of the numerous writings of Roger Bacon it is interesting to note the things he predicted, almost six hundred years ago.

"I will now enumerate the marvelous results of art and nature which will make all kinds of magic appear trivial and unworthy. Instruments for navigation can be made which will do away with the necessity of rowers, so the great vessels, both in rivers and on the sea, shall be borne about with only a single man to guide them, and with greater speed than if they were full of men. And carriages can be constructed to move without animals to draw them, and with incredible velocity. Machines for flying can be made, in which a man sits and turns an ingenious device,

by which skillfully contrived wings are made to strike the air, in the manner of a flying bird. . . ."

What other predictions or experiments Roger Bacon made we do not as yet know. He was forced to write some of his works in a secret code, because of the superstitions of his time. Modern scholars are now trying to decipher some of his codes.



DANTE AND BEATRICE

The names of Dante and Beatrice have become inseparable in history and literature. While children, they met at a festival given by the father of Beatrice. Although she married another, she remained the ideal of Dante, and his memory of her inspired many of his writings.

his day and was therefore familiar with Latin. He was inspired by the works of Vergil, the Roman poet, and he delighted in the Greek poems of Homer. Nevertheless, the *Divine Comedy* was written in the vernacular. Six hundred copies of it were made before the printing press was invented.

Dante Alighieri, 1265-1321. The language of the Church and of the universities during the time of Abelard and Bacon was Latin. It was the international language of the clergy and of the schools. The first writer of importance to make use of his mother tongue (the vernacular) was Dante Alighieri (ä-lê-gyā'rē).

The Divine Comedy. The *Divine Comedy*, for which Dante is famous, is a description of an imaginary visit to the lower world. Vergil guides him through Hell, Purgatory, and Paradise. The people and things that he sees on this visit shed light on the life and thoughts of men just before the Renaissance. Dante had been educated in the schools of

It was criticized by some of the Schoolmen because it was not written in Latin, the scholarly language of the times. Despite this criticism it became the model for literary works in Italy, and it laid the foundation for the national language of that country.

Preservation of the Greek Language. The Greek language, the authors, and their writings were not unknown to the people of western Europe during this period. These things had been preserved in Constantinople by the Greeks and in southern Italy by the Greco-Arabian settlements.

Petrarch, 1304-1374. Petrarch was another Florentine who, though somewhat younger, lived during the time of Dante. He spent much of his time collecting old Latin manuscripts. He traveled throughout Italy and many of the countries across the Alps, searching for works of the early Roman writers. Those that he found and could not buy he borrowed and had copied. Due largely to Petrarch's labors, people began to read Vergil, Horace, Livy, and Cicero. A new world of literature and history was opened.

Boccaccio, 1313-1375. Petrarch knew very little Greek, but Boccaccio, his contemporary, was familiar with the Greek language. Boccaccio (bôk-kä'chô) translated the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* into Latin. Other scholars in western Europe became deeply interested in the classics. This recovery of the old literature revolutionized the thought of fifteenth century Europe.

The Renaissance. When men like Abelard, Bacon, Dante, and Petrarch began to question, to experiment, and to investigate, the Renaissance was on. As one historian puts it, the recovery of the Old World, next to the discovery of the New World, marks the transition to modern life.

The Humanists. The enthusiasm for Latin and Greek, and the desire to study them, necessitated a new course in the universities known as the "humanities." The men who took up the study of the Humanities were called "Humanists." The name is derived from the Latin "*litteræ humaniores*," which means more human letters; this distinguished them from the scholastics, who studied the divine (church) letters and philosophy.

Manuscripts. Humanism was aided by the popes and kings. Old manuscripts were collected, libraries erected, and

hundreds of men employed in copying. Many of the copyists did excellent work. They were skilled penmen and wrote rapidly. Many of their manuscripts were beautifully designed along the borders of the pages, and the letters were illuminated in bright color. The most careful scribe could not avoid making errors; the speediest copyist was slow as compared with our modern method of printing. The time and trouble required to prepare a manuscript made it very expensive. At best, only a few hundred copies of any work were circulated. This gave the great mass of people little opportunity to benefit by the work of the Humanists. But the introduction of paper and printing from the East changed this.

Paper. The Chinese used paper long before the birth of Christ. The Arabs are supposed to have learned the art of making paper from some Chinese paper makers who were captured in battle about the middle of the eighth century. The Arabs manufactured their paper out of flax and rags, and established factories in Spain and Sicily. Paper found a good market in Europe, because it was much cheaper and lighter than the old papyrus and parchment.



From a seventeenth century French print

EARLY PRINTING PRESS

Printing. No one can say for certain when or by whom printing was introduced into Europe. Movable type was used in China and Korea long before Europeans in the West had heard of it. Two men, Laurens Coster of Haarlem, Holland, and Johann Gutenberg (gōō'těn-běrck) of Mainz (mints), Germany, share the honor of establishing the first printing press in Europe. Some authorities claim that Coster was the first, while others are equally positive that Gutenberg deserves the credit. Gutenberg set up his printing press about 1450, and it is said that the first printed book in Christendom was issued from this press—a Latin translation of the Bible. Regardless of these controversies, it was the manufacture of paper and the knowledge of printing that gave the common people a chance to share in the Renaissance.

Printing and Books Increase. By the end of the century printing presses were established in many places in western Europe. Venice alone could boast of more than two hundred. In 1476 William Caxton set up a press near Westminster Abbey, in London. More men began to write in the vernacular of their own countries; and these books, because they were cheaper and more abundant than the expensive manuscripts, reached a larger reading public than heretofore.

Wyclif, Chaucer, Langland. Shortly after Dante had written his Divine Comedy John Wyclif translated the Bible into English, and manuscript copies were circulated and widely read. Geoffrey Chaucer, a little later and in the same country, wrote his *Canterbury Tales*. He represented himself as one of a group of thirty-two pilgrims on their way to the tomb of Thomas à Becket at Canterbury. These pilgrims are drawn from every walk in life and each tells his own story. Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* shed much light on the life of fourteenth century England. Editions of Chaucer's poems were issued from Caxton's press in the next century. Chaucer wrote of the bright side of life, but his fellow countryman, William Langland, pictured the life of the oppressed peasants. Langland's poem, *The Vision of Piers the Plowman*, tells of the poorer classes, how they suffered from the effects of the Black Death and the Hundred Years' War, how they were despised and robbed by the nobles and clergy, and how they lived in poverty.

Froissart. In France Jean Froissart (frwä'sär') wrote his famous *Chronicles*. He wrote of the times in which he lived. Mounted on horseback, with his faithful dog following him, he traveled through England, Scotland, Italy, and France. He described the castles and life of the nobility. He told of chivalry and the wandering minstrels. He was born the year before the Hundred Years' War opened, and witnessed many of the events of that conflict. He accompanied the armies and wrote of the battles of Crécy and Poitiers. His stories often contradict one another, but Froissart was loath to spoil a good story because of troublesome facts. His work is important in French literature, for like Dante in Italy and Wyclif in England, he wrote in the vernacular of his country.

Cervantes, Spenser, Shakespeare. The revival of literature and its results moved rapidly. In Spain Cervantes (thěrvän'tās), in the sixteenth century, wrote his *Don Quixote*, a satire on chivalry and Spanish life. During the same century Spenser wrote *Faërie Queene*, and Shakespeare produced his dramas. But the Renaissance was not famous for its literature only. In the realm of architecture and painting it had its masters of achievement.

Michelangelo, 1475-1564. The greatest of these masters was Michelangelo. Michelangelo was born at Capresa, a small town in Italy near Florence, in 1475. At an early age he got into trouble because of his desire to make charcoal drawings on the walls of his father's house. The father recognized the genius of the boy, however, and apprenticed him out to a painter. Here he learned to mix colors and to work in frescoes (paintings on plaster that has not dried). At the age of fourteen he was sent to the school of Lorenzo de' Medici (dā-měd'ē-chē) in Florence. De' Medici was a wealthy merchant and patron of art. He had collected a great deal of old Roman and Greek sculpture and established a school in his palace gardens. Michelangelo remained here until he was eighteen years old, when De' Medici died and the boy went to Rome. His statue of the Virgin Mary holding her crucified Son met with much favor, and the fame of the young sculptor spread. He was asked to return to Florence, the art center of the Renaissance.

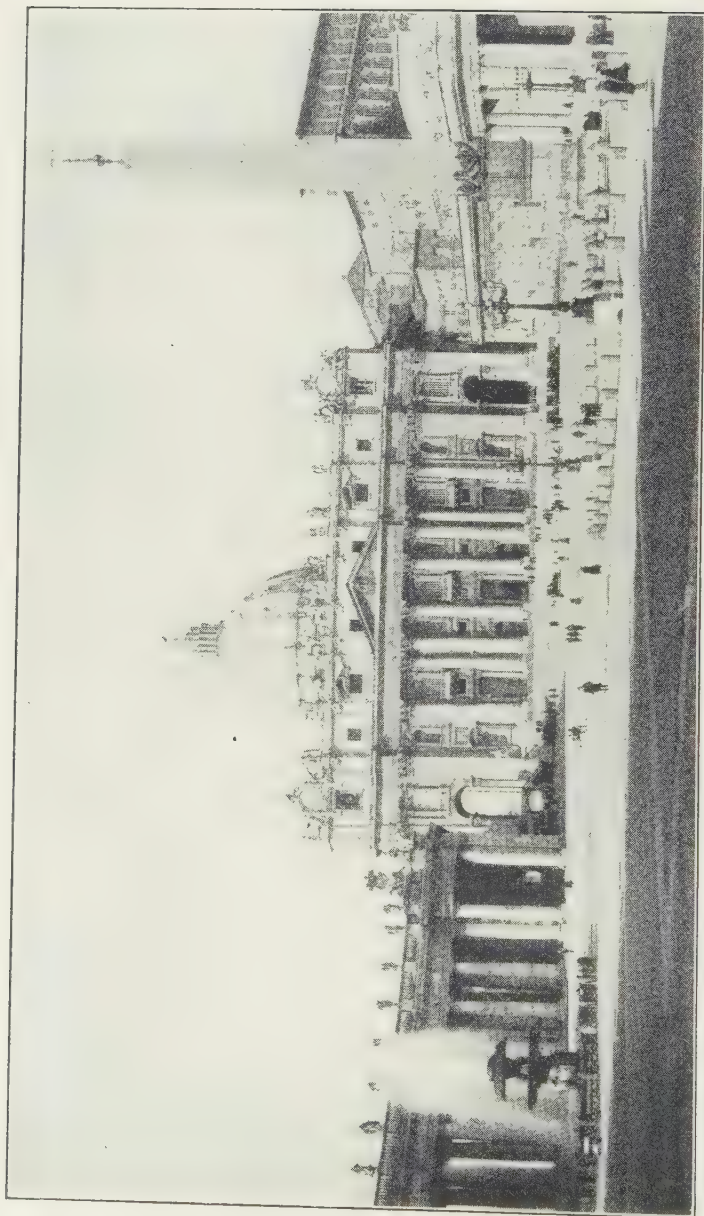
The Sculptor. Out of a half spoiled marble stone Michelangelo, a few years later, produced a statue of the Hebrew King, David. It is one of the greatest statues in the world, and his reputation as a sculptor was made. Popes, rulers, and art patrons all clamored for his services. He completed a statue of the old Hebrew prophet Moses, and one of Lorenzo de' Medici. But it was not alone sculpture that claimed the attention of this versatile man.



HEAD OF MICHELANGELO'S DAVID

The Architect and Painter. As an architect he planned the magnificent dome of St. Peter's cathedral. As a painter he mounted a scaffold nearly sixty feet high in the Sistine Chapel, the private chapel of the Pope in the Vatican, where he lay in a cramped position while he frescoed the ceiling with more than four hundred figures. Nine scenes of this fresco picture the biblical account of the creation of the world, from Genesis to the Flood, while the other figures picture the early prophets and pagan characters. Another of his famous paintings is the Last Judgment, painted after he was sixty years old. Sculptor, architect, and painter, of world renown, it would seem as though the energy of this remarkable man was spent; but he had time left to write poetry, to make engineering plans, and to organize exploring expeditions.

Leonardo da Vinci. Michelangelo was versatile, but his contemporary, Leonardo da Vinci, was more so. Da Vinci was an artist, a sculptor, an architect, an engineer, a musician, a scientist, and a philosopher. By some writers he is considered the greatest man that ever lived. His most famous painting is that of Mona Lisa, now in Paris. It is considered the finest portrait ever painted.



ST. PETER'S CATHEDRAL, ROME



MONA LISA

Raphael, 1452-1570. Another contemporary of these two men was Raphael (răf'â-ël). He painted the "Sistine Madonna" (Mother and Child) now in Dresden, and the Transfiguration, which is in the Vatican gallery at Rome.

Painting in Western Europe. Just as the revival of literature spread across the Alps, so it was with painting, art, and sculpture. In Germany, Hans Holbein (hól'bin) the younger and Albrecht Dürer were famed as painters. Rembrandt, of Holland, became one of the greatest of the master painters. Rubens, Van Dyck, and the Van Eyck brothers all were painters, and brought art home to their native coun-

try, Flanders. The Italian painters introduced perspective, that is, they were able to make objects stand out in their three dimensions. Previous to this, objects or people that the artist wished to place in the background looked to be just as near as the objects he desired in the foreground. The Italian masters worked in fresco. The Van Eyck brothers perfected oil painting—with the coloring ground in linseed or poppy oil. And thus it came about that the Renaissance was not only an age of revival, it was an age of improvement.

Pythagoras. Two hundred years before Aristotle had advanced his theory that the earth was a sphere Pythagoras (pĭ-thăg'ô-rās), a Greek scientist, taught that the earth was a globe and revolved with other planets around the sun. In their investigation of the old Greek literature many Humanists came across these scientific explanations of the ancients.

Copernicus. Copernicus, a Pole who lived in the fifteenth century, became interested in the Pythagorean theory and gave reasons why he believed it. The universities opposed Copernicus, for they believed in the Ptolemaic theory, ad-

vanced by the Egyptian scientist Ptolemy, that all the other planets revolved around the earth. Copernicus was afraid to publish his work, for fear the Church would condemn him as a heretic on the ground that it contradicted the Bible. A student of Copernicus, however, persuaded him to have his scientific experiments published. This he did, and the first copy reached his bedside a few hours before his death.

Galileo, 1564-1642. One hundred years after Copernicus, an Italian scientist by the name of Galileo (găl'i-lē'ō) went up to a



GALILEO DROPPING THE WEIGHTS

gallery in the leaning tower of Pisa and dropped two objects of unequal weight to the ground. Previous to his time it was argued that a weight one hundred times heavier than another would drop one hundred times faster. Instead of taking this for granted, Galileo decided to find out whether it was so. He proved that falling bodies, regardless of weight, fall at the same rate. He thus laid the foundation for the laws of dynamics. At another time he took a piece of organ pipe, attached a small magnifying lens at each end, and turned this—one of the first telescopes—on the heavenly bodies. He became convinced that the theory of Copernicus was correct, and that the earth did rotate on its axis and revolve around the sun.

Galileo before the Inquisition. He published his discovery and beliefs. The Church officials were offended. They refused to believe that the earth was smaller than the sun, or that the planet on which they lived was not the center of the universe. Galileo was called before the Inquisition. He was an old man, nearly seventy years of age. He was threatened with torture if he did not recant (deny) his statements. In view of these threats Galileo made the statement that his theory was false.

The Inquisition had intimidated Galileo; it had forced him to recant what he believed; it had driven him into exile. But more than a hundred years before Galileo, men across the Alps had thundered their defiance at the Church authorities. This phase of the Era of Enlightenment is known as the Reformation, and will be discussed in the next chapter.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Discuss the conditions in western Europe that retarded the Renaissance. How did the Crusades aid the movement?
2. How do the materials out of which paper is made in the twentieth century differ from those in the fourteenth? Reference: Compton: *Pictured Encyclopedia*.
3. Show how the development of the vernacular aided nationalism.
4. Explain why the people of the eastern Roman Empire and the Arabs in Spain were able to retain their early civilizations.
5. Theodore Roosevelt opposed debating in schools and colleges on the ground that it warped a person's sincerity. Scholasticism

produced good debaters. Was their sincerity warped? Comment on the statement of Roosevelt.

6. Name four great city states in Italy during the Renaissance and compare them with the Greek city states, in government and commerce.
7. What improvements have been made in printing, in literature, and in science since the Renaissance?
8. What conditions favored the beginning of the Renaissance in Italy?

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Make individual reports on the lives of the leading men of the Renaissance, showing how the world was benefited because these men lived.

II. Chapter XXII of Robinson's *Readings in European History*, Vol. I, describes the Italian city states and the Italian despots, analyzes the work of the political writer Machiavelli, and gives biographical sketches of the leading men of the Italian Renaissance. Interesting reports may be based on each of these.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

OLIPHANT	<i>The Makers of Florence</i>	Clay and Sons (London)
SYMONDS	<i>A Short History of the Renaissance</i>	Holt
MARVIN	<i>The Living Past</i>	Oxford Press

HISTORICAL NOVEL

ELIOT	<i>Romola</i> (Italian Renaissance)	Little
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CHAPTER XXI

THE REFORMATION

The Reformation. The Reformation was the result of a movement started by conscientious clergy within the Church to correct the abuses, unjust practices, and certain doctrines that had slowly fastened themselves upon that institution. Some of the reformers headed a revolt and separated from the Papacy. Others remained within the Church and helped correct many things that had given cause for complaint. So many different factors entered into the movement, and so

many different motives prompted the men who participated in it, that a mere definition of the Reformation cannot do justice to the subject. The revolt against the Papacy centers around the name of Martin Luther, while the reform within the Church was begun by Pope Paul III, aided by the converted soldier of fortune, Ignatius Loyola (lō-yō'lā). Clustering about these names, the Reformation reached its climax in the sixteenth century.



From the painting by C. F. Jones

THE CITATION OF WYCLIF

Wyclif's criticisms of the church authorities caused him to be summoned before the archbishop of Canterbury and the bishop of London. He appeared at St. Paul's, escorted by his powerful supporters, among whom was the Duke of Lancaster. The proceedings soon degenerated into a quarrel between Lancaster and the bishop of London, and the council broke up in confusion.

John Wyclif, 1324-1384. John Wyclif, with the aid of his followers, not only translated the Bible into English, but attacked many abuses of the church. He protested against the heavy taxes laid upon the people by the Popes. He insisted that the Bible was the sanction for men's actions, and not the rules laid down by church authorities. He lived dur-

ing the time of the Great Schism (Chapter XV). Wyclif openly stated that the Pope had no authority over the political actions of men.

The Lollards in England. The followers of Wyclif were called Lollards, which meant "babblers." The name was given to them in derision by their enemies. They traveled up and down the country, dressed in dark reddish gowns, trying to persuade the people to break away from certain practices of the Church, and live according to the teachings of Christ.

The Peasants' Revolt in England, 1381. In 1381, during the reign of Richard II, the Lollards lost the favor of the King and the nobility. This was the year of the peasants' revolt in England. The Hundred Years' War was a continual drain upon the treasury. The Black Death had caused untold misery. The English troops were unpaid and money was needed quickly. Every laborer, and every member of his family over fifteen years of age, was forced to pay a heavy tax. Harsh methods and cruel treatment were used to collect the money from the peasants. Free laborers and serfs banded together and took possession of London. For three weeks they burned, pillaged, and murdered. They asked of their oppressors,

"When Adam delved and Eve span,
Who was then the gentleman?"

This uprising, often called the Watt Tyler Rebellion, was soon put down, but Wyclif lost the favor of the nobles. He had taught that the property held by the English nobility was entrusted to them by the grace of God, and that when they became sinful this property was to be given up.

Statute for the Burning of Heretics, 1401. John Wyclif died the year after the revolt, and in 1401 Parliament passed a law known as the "Statute for the Burning of Heretics." The teachings of the Lollards were classed as heresy. Thus the civil authorities began to persecute men who dared to hold religious opinions of their own. But the Waldenses in France and the Lollards in England did not die in vain. The movement continued.

Wyclif's Doctrines Spread to Bohemia. The wife of Richard II was Anne of Bohemia. She was much impressed

by the doctrines of Wyclif. Partly through her influence, partly through the students who traveled to and from the English and German universities, and partly through the Lollards themselves, the writings of Wyclif reached the University of Prague, in Bohemia.

John Huss of Bohemia, 1375-1415. There a university professor by the name of John Huss accepted most of the Lollard teachings. Huss attacked the clergy for their evil and luxurious way of living. He objected to many of the doctrines of the Church, and denied the supremacy of the Pope. At the time of the Great Schism, when three Popes claimed the papal chair, one of them endeavored to grant indulgences in Bohemia. An indulgence excused a sinner from punishment by the church authorities on earth and relieved the offender, if he was sincerely repentant, of some of his punishment in Purgatory after death. This was a place of probation where souls were to be rid of all imperfections, through the prayers of the living, before they entered Heaven. Huss attacked the granting of these indulgences in Bohemia, and his followers burned the papal bull (notice). When the writings of Wyclif were ordered to be burned John Huss objected strenuously, and was excommunicated. He went into retirement for two years and wrote a defense of his views.

His Death. At the Council of Constance (Chapter XV), which met to depose the rival Popes and elect one supreme head of the Church, John Huss was condemned as a heretic. He refused to retract his teachings, unless shown that they opposed the Scriptures. The Emperor had guaranteed the safe conduct of Huss to and from the Council, but the Emperor broke his plighted word and John Huss was burned at the stake, on the outskirts of the city of Constance.

Huss immediately became the national hero of the Bohemian people. He had preached and written in their native tongue, the Czech (chěk). He had laid the foundation for their national literature and had aroused their spirit of nationalism. His martyrdom inflamed the whole country.

The Hussite Wars. The Bohemians revolted. They rebelled against the Church and the Holy Roman Empire. Crusade after crusade was launched against them. For nearly twenty years the Emperor Sigismund was kept from wearing

the Bohemian crown. At last the Hussites were defeated. But the spirit of nationalism and independence kept burning. Today the Czechs of Bohemia form the chief state in the republic of Czecho-Slovakia, established by the Versailles treaty which closed the World War of 1914-1918.

Savonarola, 1452-1498. Not all of the reformers concentrated their attacks on the Church and the Pope alone. In Italy, Savonarola (săv'ô-nă-rô'lă), an eloquent preacher of Florence, attacked the corrupt government of that city and censured the people themselves for their wickedness. Despite the fact that his teachings were in the main the same as those of the Church, he too became a martyr to his cause.

Forerunners of Luther. John Wyclif in England, John Huss in Bohemia, Savonarola in Italy, and many others were the forerunners of Martin Luther and the religious revolt in many of the German states.

Condition of Germany at the Time of Luther. The political condition of Germany, more than anything else, aided the successful rebellion and separation from the Papacy in that country. At the dawn of the sixteenth century there was still no strong, united German nation. The German people were a part of the Holy Roman Empire, established by Charlemagne and revived by Otto the Great. This Empire was neither holy, nor Roman, nor an Empire—as Voltaire, a later French writer, put it. The country was composed of several hundred petty states. These included principalities, duchies, and free cities. Germany was still in the grip of Feudalism. The Emperor was acknowledged, although very slightly in some parts, as the overlord.

Charles V, 1519-1556. In 1519 the German princes and electors chose King Charles I of Spain and the Netherlands to govern the Empire. As was the custom, the new Emperor—known as Charles V—was descended from the house of Hapsburg, in Austria. Charles V controlled more territory than any other ruler in Europe. Through his mother, a daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, he became King of Spain, Naples, Sicily, and all of South America except Brazil. Through his father he ruled Burgundy and the Netherlands, as well as the Austrian possessions. His election as Emperor

further increased his possessions, but only added to his troubles, as we shall see.

It will be well to remember how the Spanish Kings gained control of the Netherlands (Holland and Belgium), for later we shall learn of the fight of Holland to free herself from the tyranny of Spain.

Martin Luther, 1483-1546. Martin Luther was born in the Electorate of Saxony, November 10, 1483. His parents were of humble stock, but ambitious for their son's success. Luther's father was a poor, hardworking coal miner. But through frugality and thrift he saved enough money to buy a few blast furnaces, and these provided him with sufficient income to send his son to college. He wanted Martin to become a lawyer, and with that purpose in view Luther, at the age of eighteen, was sent to the University of Erfurt (ēr'fōort).

He Enters a Monastery. He finished his course in law and then, for some unknown reason, instead of following that profession he entered a monastery and became a monk. He was very much concerned about his sins. He pored over theological subjects and studied the Scriptures. He practiced the strictest kind of asceticism, torturing and starving his body to such an extent that later he said, "If ever a monk got to heaven by monkhood, I should have attained it." After studying the matter carefully Luther became convinced that many of the church doctrines were not in accord with the Scriptures. He followed to some extent the beliefs of Wyclif and Huss.

Appointed to a Professorship in Wittenberg. When Frederick the Wise, Elector of Saxony, founded a university at Wittenberg, Luther became one of the teachers. As professor of theology and of the works of Aristotle, he taught his new ideas. He recommended that the teachings of Aristotle be discarded. Three years later Luther was sent to Rome on a mission, and while there he was very much shocked by the gay and sinful life led by many of the clergy. He returned home with deeper convictions, and taught with more zeal and energy. Students heard of his sermons and lectures. They came from far and near and assembled in the classroom of the eloquent teacher. Though Luther was not

in sympathy with some of the church doctrines, he had no idea of breaking with the Papacy.

Campaign for the Sale of Indulgences. However, the events for which Luther is known to posterity were shaping themselves in the papal court at Rome. After the seat of the Papacy had been removed from Avignon, France, back to Italy, in 1416, the successive Popes decided to rebuild the church of St. Peter on a more magnificent scale. To continue this work, and to meet other expenses, Pope Leo X planned an extensive campaign for the sale of indulgences. The archbishop of Mainz was appointed to supervise the sales over a large part of Germany. This prelate assigned John Tetzel, an unscrupulous Dominican Friar, to a district in Saxony around Wittenberg.

John Tetzel. The terms of the indulgences were written in Latin, and could not be read by the vast majority of common people. In order to increase his sales, Tetzel took advantage of this situation. He gave the people the impression that just so soon as they purchased an indulgence they became exempt from all the penalties of sin. It was further emphasized that it made no difference whether or not the sinner was sorry or truly repentant for his sins. "As soon as the money rattles in the box the soul flies out of purgatory," was reported as his chief selling argument.

Luther Posts His Ninety-five Theses, 1517. Luther's sense of justice was outraged, and in the autumn of 1517 he wrote out ninety-five theses or statements concerning indulgences, and nailed them upon the church door at Wittenberg. In these statements Luther accepted the view of the Church in regard to indulgences, but he objected to the abuses of the system. His ninety-five theses were written in Latin, and were posted so that scholars might read them, and meet him in open debate if they objected to any of his arguments.

The Theses Broadcast in German. But the theses were translated into German, and many copies were printed and distributed. Soon they were being read and discussed in thousands of homes. Luther had hinted that if the Pope could release a man's soul from purgatory for money, the poor man might wonder why he could not do it for charity. Arguments such as this gripped the popular mind.



From the painting by K. F. Lessing

THE LEIPZIG DISPUTATIONS

In 1519, Leipzig was the scene of the famous disputes between Martin Luther and the learned Dr. Eck.

Luther Threatened with Excommunication. Tetzel issued counter-attacks upon Luther. The students at Wittenberg sided with their professor, and burned Tetzel's pamphlets. The Pope at first paid little attention to the controversy, saying it was "a mere squabble of monks." Many of the abuses, however, were corrected by the Church, and Tetzel was reprimanded by his bishop. In the meantime Luther was called upon to debate with one person after another, and as these debates continued and his popularity increased he grew bolder and bolder. He openly championed the views of John Huss. He denied the authority of the Pope and of church councils and stated that the Bible was the only authority for man's actions. Leo X tried to bring Luther back to the old beliefs, but failed. The Pope then threatened him with excommunication.

The Manifesto of the Reformation. Undaunted by this, Luther stood his ground and issued an address to the German nobility which has been called the "Manifesto of the

Reformation." In it he denied the power of the Pope over the Emperor. He advised the princes, nobles, and free cities to forbid the Pope to collect certain revenues from the bishops and abbots within their territory. Of course, there were a few German rulers who followed Luther because of his political views, since they were very willing to gain power at the expense of the Pope.

Luther Burns the Papal Bull. In December, 1520, Luther received a copy of the bull which had been issued by the Pope. In it he was ordered to burn all his writings and retract his statements within sixty days, or he and all of his followers would be guilty of heresy. In reply, Luther had a large fire kindled, and as university students, faculty members, and townspeople gathered around, he threw the notice of excommunication, with the other church documents, into the flames. Enthusiasm among his adherents ran high, the news of his act spread, and Luther became a national hero.

The Diet of Worms, 1521. This occurred shortly after Charles V had been elected Emperor, and in 1521 he came into Germany for the first time. He called an assembly or diet of the leading nobles and clergy to meet at Worms, to discuss the political and religious affairs of the country. The Pope asked the Emperor to send Luther to Rome for trial. Charles was a devout Catholic and would probably have agreed to the Pope's wish, but Luther had powerful friends among the nobility who persuaded the Emperor to conduct the trial at Worms.

Trial of Luther. Charles guaranteed Luther's safety while going to and from the trial. Most of Germany was in sympathy with Luther, and his friends tried to persuade him not to go. They reminded him of another Emperor's similar promise to John Huss. But Luther went. Before this imperial assembly Luther was asked to acknowledge his errors. Fearlessly facing his judge, Luther replied: "I cannot, I will not retract anything, unless what I have written shall be shown contrary to Scripture or to plain reason, for to act against conscience is neither safe nor upright. I can do no otherwise; here I stand, God help me, Amen." All efforts to move him from his stand failed. There were some who

wished him burned at the stake, but Charles V kept his word and allowed him to return home unharmed.



From the painting by Titian

CHARLES V

Edict of Worms. Soon after Luther had left the diet the Edict of Worms was issued, which ordered Luther to be seized and delivered to the Emperor for execution. No one was allowed to give him food, drink, or shelter, upon penalty of death.

Luther at Wartburg. Luther was seized, by order of his friend the Elector of Saxony, and concealed in the castle of Wartburg (värt'boörk). Here he remained in hiding, protected by Frederick the Wise from the bans of Papacy and Empire. He was not idle, however, for he translated the

Bible into German, and thus rendered the same service for German literature that Dante, Wyclif, Froissart, and Huss had rendered for the literature of their countries. He also wrote many hymns, among them the well-known "A Mighty Fortress Is Our God."

The Peasants' Revolt in Germany, 1524-1525. Luther left Wartburg the following year and returned to Wittenberg. He reformed some of the church service and organized churches in Saxony. His return was prompted by certain radical reformers who desired to go, as he thought, to extremes. The religious excitement had spread to the peasant classes; and these people, suffering from the tyranny of their overlords and priests, rose in rebellion headed by the reform leaders. Monasteries were sacked, castles burned, and nobles murdered. When the rebellion was put down, a hundred thousand lives had been lost and most of southern Germany laid waste. The condition of the peasants was now worse than ever, and remained so among their descendants for many generations.

First Diet of Speyer, 1526. When Luther left Wartburg the only thing that insured his safety was the fact that Charles V was at war with France and unable to attend to his affairs in Germany. The several hundred independent German rulers could not agree upon the question of church policy. Most of southern Germany stood by the Pope and adhered to the Catholic faith. The northern states stood by Luther. In 1526 both factions met at Speyer and it was decided that each ruler should decide the religious faith of his district, his subjects having no voice in the matter.

The Protestants. At a second diet at Speyer Charles V commanded that the ban against Luther be enforced, and that he and his followers be apprehended. It was also decided that the reformed rulers should no longer have the right to decide the religion of their respective districts. Many of the north German rulers issued a statement condemning this act. Because of this protest, the people who broke from the Catholic church were called Protestants.

The Augsburg Confession, 1530. The Emperor, who resided in Spain, was too busy with other things to enforce his edict. But in 1530, having made a temporary peace with

the French King, he came into Germany and called a diet of the German nobility at Augsburg (ouks'boörk). Charles was anxious to end the religious discussion of his German subjects, so he asked the Protestants to write out their religious beliefs, in order to form a basis for discussion. This was done by a colleague of Luther's, Philip Melanchthon (mê-länk'thūn). The Augsburg confession, as this document was called, repudiated confessions, fasts, monastic vows, celibacy of the clergy (Luther himself married), penances, the temporal power of the Pope, and several other things. It rejected, on the other hand, the teachings of the radical reformers. The Emperor then appointed Catholic church officials to refute them. When this was done Charles ordered the Protestants to cease quarreling with the Catholics and to return all the monasteries and church property which they had seized. In addition, the Protestants were commanded to submit within five months. The Emperor agreed to ask the Pope to call a council in the near future and settle the entire matter.

Peace of Augsburg, 1555. New wars called Charles from Germany, and for ten years he was kept in southern Europe. This gave the Protestants an opportunity to continue their movement, and more rulers in northern Germany accepted Luther's views. As soon as Charles was able to direct his attention once more to Germany a brief war against the Protestant rulers occurred, followed by the Peace of Augsburg. Hereafter, the ruler in each of the two hundred and more states in Germany was to decide whether his subjects were to be Catholics or Lutherans. This did not establish religious toleration, since the people were compelled to accept the faith of their princes. It did, however, legalize Lutheranism.

The Revolt in Switzerland—Zwingli. Independently of Luther, but about the same time, a revolt against the Papacy was led by Hulderich Zwingli (tsvǝng'lē), in Switzerland. He denied the supremacy of the Pope and assailed the practices of selling indulgences and making pilgrimages. He preached in the cathedral of the free city of Zurich, and his views formed a lively topic among his congregation. His opponents challenged him to a debate, and the city magistrates, after considering both sides of the argument, ap-

proved of Zwingli's ideas. The reform movement spread. Several of the Swiss cantons separated from the Roman Church, but the older cantons around Lake Lucerne remained Catholic. A civil war followed and Zwingli was killed in battle. After his death it was agreed that each canton should practice the religion it desired, and today part of the country is Catholic and part Protestant.

John Calvin, 1509-1564.

A third religious leader now appeared upon the scene. John Calvin was a Frenchman. He was a keen student of theology and law. Driven from France because of his Protestant religious teachings, Calvin found refuge in Geneva, Switzerland. This city in 1536 had just gained its independence from its feudal lord, the Duke of Savoy. It was in the midst of organizing a city republic and adopting a Protestant faith when the city officials heard that Calvin, the French writer and scholar, had arrived. They appointed him their leader and authorized him to supervise this work.



JOHN CALVIN, DICTATOR OF GENEVA

The Government of Geneva. Calvin planned a government dominated by the church. The most important group in this organization was the Presbytery, whose members were elected annually and consisted of twice as many lay members as clergy. The Presbytery enforced the laws governing the conduct and morals of the whole population. A general council was also elected by the people, but had little to do with the city government. At the head of the system stood Calvin, wielding almost absolute power.

Intolerance in Geneva. All the inhabitants were forced to attend church twice on Sunday. Amusements, such as

dancing, masquerades, and festivals, were forbidden. Silk dresses and jewelry were considered sinful. Blasphemy was a capital crime. Calvin was as intolerant as the Catholics who had persecuted him. He had a famous Spanish physician burned at the stake because he denied the Trinity.

Expansion of Calvinism. Reformers came from many parts of Europe to study under Calvin. These students, inspired by the Dictator of Geneva, returned home and taught his doctrines. The most important of these doctrines was Predestination, which held that only a select few were pre-ordained to be saved. In this way Calvinism expanded. Under the leadership of John Knox it gripped Scotland; and it formed the dominant religion of Holland. In France the followers of Calvin were called Huguenots (hū'gē-nōtz). In America the religious and political life of early Massachusetts was based on Calvin's Geneva government.

Henry VIII of England, 1509-1547. In England the separation from the Catholic church was due largely to the personal ambition of its King, Henry VIII. This monarch was the son of Henry Tudor, who had been crowned on Bosworth Field (Chapter XVIII) as Henry VII. When only twelve years old Henry VIII had been forced by his father, for political reasons, to marry his brother's widow, Catherine of Aragon, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain.

The Oxford Reformers. When the young King ascended the throne the Renaissance was in full swing. John Colet (kōl'ēt) had studied Greek in Italy and had been influenced by the religious teachings of Savonarola. He returned to England and became one of the leaders of the humanistic movement and of religious reforms. A close friend and co-worker of Colet's was Erasmus, a native of Rotterdam, Holland. Erasmus traveled and studied in Germany, France, and Italy. He kept up a correspondence with the great scholars in all those countries. In a book called the *Praise of Folly* he criticized many of the Church doctrines and corrupt practices. Erasmus believed that these reforms could be accomplished without separating from the Church. He was admired by Pope Leo X and the leading rulers of Europe, and was much disappointed when the revolt under Luther occurred.

More's Utopia. Associated with Colet and Erasmus was Sir Thomas More—lawyer, scholar, and statesman. He is remembered as the author of *Utopia*. This book pictured an imaginary island named Utopia (Nowhere). Here all men were equal. All could worship God as they saw fit without being persecuted. Everybody worked. There were no rich and no poor. The happiness in Utopia was due to the absence of those evils that were making England unhappy. In this way More drove his lesson home. Today we speak of anything that is imagined as perfection as being Utopian. Colet, Erasmus, and More were known as the Oxford Reformers.

Henry VIII as "Defender of the Faith." The teachings of these three men met with disfavor from many elements in English society, but Henry VIII protected and encouraged them. He remained, however, a strict Catholic, and published a reply to one of Luther's books. This reply he had bound and sent to Leo X, whereupon the Pope conferred upon Henry the title of "Defender of the Faith," a title still retained by English rulers.

Seeks a Divorce from Catherine. But Henry was destined to be a poor defender. His marriage to Catherine of Aragon had required special permission from the Pope, as the canon law forbade a man to wed his brother's widow. Catherine and Henry had been married eighteen years and had several children, all of whom died except one daughter, Mary. Henry was anxious to have a son succeed him, as it was not customary in England or any of the European countries for a woman to rule in her own right. It was while in this mood that Henry fell in love with Anne Boleyn (boōl'in), one of Catherine's maids of honor. The King suddenly decided that his marriage with Catherine was sinful and unlawful. He asked the Pope to grant him a divorce.

Marries Anne Boleyn. The Pope, Clement VII, had been unsuccessful in a war against the Emperor Charles V, and at this time was in the power of that ruler. Catherine was the aunt of Charles, and even had the Pope desired to grant Henry's wish this would have prevented him. After an unsuccessful trial, and several years of delay, Henry took matters into his own hands. Under the influence of Thomas



From the mural painting by Frank O. Salisbury in the House of Lords, London
 THE DIVORCE TRIAL OF HENRY VIII AND CATHERINE OF ARAGON, 1528
 Queen Catherine is pleading with the King. Cardinal Wolsey is
 presiding.

Cranmer, archbishop of Canterbury, the English University authorities granted Henry a divorce. A few had to be bribed and others forced, before this was accomplished. Henry then married Anne Boleyn, and shortly thereafter she was crowned at Westminster Abbey.

The Act of Supremacy, 1534. The Pope threatened Henry with excommunication if he did not take Catherine back and part with Anne Boleyn. Upon the King's demand, Parliament, which was completely under Henry's control, passed the Act of Supremacy, which separated England from the Papacy. By this act the King of England was declared

"the only supreme head on earth of the Church of England." At the same time a law was passed stating that anyone who called the King a heretic, tyrant, or usurper was to suffer death. Such was the Protestant revolt in England.

A Bill of Attainder. Another English practice instituted at this time was that of condemning an accused person by a bill of attainder. Such a bill did not permit a man to offer any defense for his action. So hateful did this injustice become to our American forefathers that they placed in our constitution a paragraph stating that "no bill of attainder . . . shall be passed."

Suppression of the Monasteries. Sir Thomas More was imprisoned in the tower of London and beheaded, because he could not say with a clear conscience that he thought Henry morally and spiritually entitled to head the Church of England. When the Pope heard of More's execution he excommunicated and deposed Henry. The King replied by taking possession of the monasteries. Again Parliament sanctioned his actions. These buildings were stripped of all their possessions and the lands sold to the King's friends.

The Order of Succession. Henry sent Anne Boleyn to the block only three years after their marriage. There was one child by this union, Elizabeth, who was destined to be one of England's greatest rulers. The morning after Anne was beheaded Henry married Jane Seymour. Edward, a son by this marriage, was a delicate and sickly child. In view of this fact Henry received permission from Parliament to name his successors, and in his will he made Mary and then Elizabeth his heirs in case of Edward's death.

Religion in England at the Time of Henry VIII. At heart Henry VIII was a Catholic. He established a new national Church, which was Catholic as to its ritual or ceremonial but in time became Protestant as to its belief. Meanwhile, both these sects were persecuted by Henry, acting as head of the Anglican church (Church of England). Henry burned as heretics those who believed in Protestantism, and he hanged as traitors faithful Catholics who acknowledged the Pope. At one time six men were drawn on the same sled to the place of execution, of whom three were to die because they were Catholics and three because they were Protestants.

The Division of Christendom. Norway, Sweden, and Denmark accepted the doctrines of Luther. The rulers of those countries took possession of the monasteries and other church properties of the Catholics. Lutheranism and Calvinism were accepted in parts of France and the Netherlands; while in England, as we have just seen, the Pope's authority was denied. The spread of Protestantism was rapid, but it was checked to a great extent by the reformation within the Catholic Church, by the society of the Jesuits, by the defense of Catholicism on the part of Spain, and by the lack of agreement among the Protestants themselves.

Council of Trent, 1545-1563. In 1545 Pope Paul III began a reform within the Church known as the Counter-Reformation. He summoned an ecclesiastical council to meet at Trent, on the boundary line between Germany and Italy. Many of the abuses to which the Protestants, as well as loyal Catholics, had objected were remedied. Bishops, abbots, and priests were appointed because of their goodness and ability, and not for selfish financial and political reasons. The College of Cardinals was opened to conscientious reformers of the Church. The sincerity of Pope Paul III was shown when he offered Erasmus a seat among the Cardinals. There was little opportunity for reconciliation between Catholics and Protestants. The Council condemned the Protestant beliefs. It acknowledged the Pope as head of the Church, and forbade anyone to publish or read any pamphlet or book that criticized the church doctrines. The list of works which the clergy compiled and prohibited church members from reading was called the "Index." It took nearly twenty years for the Council to finish its work.

Ignatius Loyola, 1491-1556. The greatest opponent of Martin Luther and all Protestants was Ignatius Loyola. He was a Spaniard and a soldier in the army of Charles V. In one of the battles fought in Spain against the French, Loyola was badly wounded and taken prisoner. So severe was his wound and so painful the operation that his recovery seemed impossible, and he received the last sacraments. He grew stronger, however, and slowly regained his health. It was during these long, tedious days of recovery that he decided to abandon his old life and his military career. As

soon as he was able he went to a monastery, gave up all his worldly possessions, and put on a gown of sack-cloth and a pair of hempen shoes. For a week he tortured his body by scourging and fasting, and shortly afterwards made a pilgrimage to the Holy Land. Upon his return, Loyola was forced to spend many years in study before he was qualified to enter the priesthood. He overcame all these obstacles and was finally ordained as a priest.



IGNATIUS LOYOLA

The Jesuits. The next year Loyola organized a body of priests and called the organization the Society of Jesus. He offered the services of this organization to the Pope, with the understanding that it should combat heresy and teach Christianity throughout the world. The members of this Order were governed by military and church discipline. The society grew and at the time of Loyola's death there were over a thousand members. The Jesuits established some of the finest schools in Europe. They founded missions in the Catholic countries that were threatened with Protestantism. Fearlessly, and enduring all kinds of hardships, the Jesuits carried the gospel into China, Japan, the Philippine Islands, India, and America. During the period of Colonial expansion we shall note the work of these brave men around the Great Lakes and in the Mississippi Valley. In the face of death they explored the territory, established schools, and taught Christianity to the American Indian.

Henry IV, First Bourbon King of France, 1589-1610. The most important event to note in France concerning the Reformation is the Edict of Nantes (nānts). Many people in France accepted the doctrines of John Calvin. Hugue-

nots (a name for French Protestants) and Catholics alike were to be found both among the nobility and among the common people. Civil wars raged for nearly forty years. Henry Bourbon (bōor'būn), Prince of Navarre, became the leader of the Huguenots; and when Henry III was assassinated, in 1589, this Protestant prince was the nearest heir to the throne. The Catholics, who outnumbered the Huguenots, refused to accept him and more wars followed. Within a few years Henry became a Catholic, at least outwardly, saying that "Paris was worth a mass." He was now assured of his crown and became Henry IV, first of the Bourbon Kings, a line of rulers that we shall follow pretty closely until after the French Revolution in the eighteenth century.

Edict of Nantes, 1598. At heart Henry IV was a Huguenot, and because of this fact he issued the Edict of Nantes. This edict gave the Huguenots the same political rights as Catholics, and made them eligible for government positions. It allowed the Protestants to hold certain fortified towns to protect themselves if attacked. In these towns the Huguenots were allowed to hold services.

Philip II of Spain. In 1555 Charles V gave up all his crowns, titles, and thrones and went to live, surrounded by peace and plenty, in the monastery of St. Yuste, Spain. His son, Philip II, became King of Spain, of the Netherlands, and of the Spanish possessions in America. Charles' brother Ferdinand was elected Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire. This made two ruling branches of one family, the Spanish and the Austrian Hapsburgs.

The Netherlands at the Time of Philip II. The Netherlands consisted of seventeen provinces, with partially independent governments. In the north the people were of Germanic origin, and were known as the Dutch. The south was inhabited mainly by Flemish people, of Celtic origin and using a Romance language. The teachings of Luther gained a foothold in the Netherlands, especially among the Dutch. Charles V endeavored to root out the heresy by establishing the Inquisition. People were burned at the stake, strangled, and buried alive; but when the Emperor abdicated, despite his methods, Protestantism in the Netherlands was stronger than ever. Philip II remained at Brussels four years after

his coronation in that city, and spent the time trying to suppress his anti-Catholic subjects. At the end of this time he sailed for Spain, and never returned to the Netherlands.

"The Council of Blood." The religious persecutions continued, however, under Philip's orders. Outbreaks and riots occurred. Finally the King sent a Spanish army, led by his ablest general, the Duke of Alva, to quell the disorder. Alva set up a tribunal, called the "Council of Blood," to try people for heresy and treason. So many people were executed that thousands of Protestants fled to England and Germany. The people were taxed so heavily that commerce and manufactures were on the verge of ruin. Catholics and Protestants united and rose against Spain.

William of Orange. The leadership of the Netherlands fell to William of Orange (the Silent). He was a man of great wealth and of steady courage. He had served as a page under Charles V in his boyhood, and was a devout Catholic. During the Spanish tyranny he accepted Protestantism, and was greatly opposed to persecution by either sect.

The Union of Utrecht, 1579. The war dragged on for several years. Then the ten southern provinces, mainly Catholic, gave in to Philip. These became known as the Spanish Netherlands—now known as Belgium. But the seven Protestant states in the north continued the struggle, and by the Treaty of Utrecht formed a confederation known as the Seven United Provinces of the Netherlands. They elected William of Orange as stadtholder.

The Siege of Leyden, 1574. It was four years before the Union of Utrecht that the famous siege of Leyden occurred. The Spaniards had surrounded the city and demanded its surrender. But for four months the inhabitants defied their enemy, defended their city, and put their confidence in the promise of William the Silent to save them. When everything seemed darkest William the Silent had the dikes cut, and as the waters flooded the land more than a thousand of the besiegers were drowned. Dutch barges filled with men and supplies floated up to the city walls, and amidst great rejoicing the half-starved inhabitants were rescued. When William offered these brave defenders their choice of an exemption

from further taxation or a university grant, they chose the latter.

Declaration of Independence. On July 26, 1581, the Dutch issued their Declaration of Independence from Spain. Three years later William was murdered by an assassin hired with Spanish money. William of Orange holds the same honored place among the Dutch that Washington holds among Americans.

Treaty of Westphalia, 1648. The struggle continued under the stadtholder's young son Prince Maurice, a youth of seventeen. Philip became involved in a war with England and France; and in 1588 his great fleet, the Spanish Armada, was destroyed by England in the English Channel, and Spain's sea power was weakened. Philip's successor made a truce with Holland, being convinced that he could never conquer the country. And at the Treaty of Westphalia (wěst-fā'li-ă), 1648, the independence of Holland was assured. The Dutch Republic in the seventeenth century vied with Spain, England, and France for commercial supremacy and colonial possessions.

Another Phase of the Era of Enlightenment. A generation before Martin Luther posted his ninety-five theses on the church door at Wittenberg bold navigators were sailing the unknown seas, and changing the commercial center of the world from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic. Fortunately, at the same time and unknown to themselves they were establishing a refuge where economic, political, and religious freedom would be enjoyed by all. This forms still another phase of the Era of Enlightenment—the Commercial Revolution.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. What was the political reason for the persecution of the Lollards?
The religious reason?
2. How did the work of the Humanists influence the Reformation?
3. Compare the Peasants' Revolt in England with the Slave Revolt in Sicily during the days of the Roman Republic (Chapter VIII). In which country do you think the masses were better off? Give reasons for your answer.

4. Why was the Holy Roman Empire "neither holy, Roman, nor an Empire" during the reign of Charles V?
5. How did the vast possessions of Charles V aid the Reformation in Germany?
6. Give illustrations showing how the spirit of intolerance was to be found among all religious sects. How did this same spirit affect the political thought of men?
7. Compare a bill of attainder with a writ of habeas corpus and trial by jury. Tell how each originated in England. What is meant when you read in your newspapers that the grand jury found a "true bill" against a person?
8. What differences can you notice between the order of the Jesuits and some of the older monastic orders?
9. Was the Edict of Nantes the result of broadmindedness and toleration on the part of Henry IV? Give reasons for your answer.
10. What were the political and religious causes for the revolt of the Netherlands?

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Report on the lives of the following men: John Wyclif, John Huss, John Calvin, Erasmus, Savoriola, Charles V, William of Orange, Henry of Navarre.

II. The following selections from Robinson's *Readings in European History*, Vol. II, will be found interesting:

Chapter XXIV: Germany in the time of Maximilian I. Page 37:

The two satires, "The Ship of Fools" and "The Praise of Folly."

Chapters XXV and XXVI: The Protestant Revolt in Germany.

Chapters XXVII-XXIX: The Protestant Revolt in Switzerland and England.

Chapter XXVIII: The Catholic Reformation and the Society of Jesus; Abdication of Charles V and the Revolt of the Netherlands.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

ADAMS	<i>Civilization During the Middle Ages</i>	Scribner
MARVIN	<i>The Living Past</i>	Oxford

HISTORICAL NOVEL

DAVIS	<i>The Friar of Wittenberg</i>	Macmillan
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CHAPTER XXII

THE COMMERCIAL REVOLUTION

Commerce of Hansa Merchants in the 14th Century.

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries Hansa merchants sailed their ships from the northern waters, laden with salted fish from the Baltic, wheat, furs, and skins from Russia, and building materials from the Scandinavian peninsula. They traded along the coast of western Europe and brought their products into Spain and Italy by way of the Mediterranean Sea. Their vessels returned filled with the spices, sugars, silks, carpets, and metals of the Orient. These products they purchased from the merchants of Venice and Genoa, the two cities which monopolized the trade with the East.

Empire of Venice. From a small fishing village in the fifth century Venice became the greatest commercial city in Europe. During the Crusades its shipyards were busy constructing vessels to carry the crusaders to the Holy Land, and Venetian merchants stocked the ships. Venetian bankers grew wealthy as they loaned and exchanged money. The sea power of Venice grew, and during the fourth Crusade her war galleys captured Crete, Rhodes, Cyprus, and many smaller islands of the Mediterranean. In 1204 Constantinople was captured, and for nearly sixty years it remained a part of the Empire of Venice.

City of Venice. The government of Venice was in the hands of a senate, controlled by a group of wealthy merchants known as the Council of Ten. The chief executive was the Doge (dōj) or Duke, an elected officer. In 1400 nearly all of the 120 islands were occupied. Many of them were close together and connected by canals. Boats called gon'dolas were used, even as they are today, to convey the people from one part of the city to another. One of the numerous bridges that spanned the grand canal, the largest in the city, was called the Rialto. Here the large stores, banking houses, and chief business centers were located. Another famous bridge connected the Doge's palace with the government prison.



VENICE

Once the center of the Mediterranean, supreme in art, prosperous, gay, Venice has seen the center of world interests pulled westward by the progress of civilization. Her power is gone and only the devastating smoke and noise of industry are left to stain her still beautiful canals and to churn her placid canals. That is the tragedy of Venice.

Very few people who crossed this bridge as prisoners ever recrossed it alive. Hence it was called the "Bridge of Sighs."



THE DOGE'S PALACE

Rich in its Gothic architecture and its treasures of Veronese and Tintoretto, the Doge's palace interests the historian especially because of the magnificent façade with its balconies, the splendid Renaissance court, and the vast halls—all unchanged since medieval times.

Its Commercial Supremacy. The population of Venice came to be over 200,000. Hundreds of her merchant vessels plied the Mediterranean Sea, carrying products between the East and the West. The city had a fleet of over forty-five war galleys, manned by eleven thousand marines. Venice in 1400 was the center of world trade. Her greatest rival at that time was Genoa.

Genoese Trade Routes. After Constantinople gained its freedom from Venice, Genoa secured a monopoly of the eastern trade by gaining access to the Bosphorus and Black Sea. Here her vessels met the caravans from Russia, northern India, and China. The Oriental products were loaded on the Genoese (jĕn'ô-êz) ships and taken to Marseilles, in southern France, and thence carried up the Rhone River to the markets of northern and western Europe.

Venetian Trade Routes. Venice, on the other hand, controlled the trade of Cairo, and the waterways of the Red Sea and Indian Ocean. Caravans from Arabia, Persia, India, and China supplied the Venetians with eastern goods. These were carried back to northern Italy, unloaded, and transported across the Alps by way of Brenner Pass into the markets of the German states.

Black Sea Trade Route Closed. When the Ottoman Turks captured Constantinople, in 1453, they closed the Black Sea route to the merchants of Genoa. Venice received certain trade concessions from the Turks, and the Genoese were further embittered. But events were already taking place that were to shift the commercial supremacy from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic.

Causes for High Prices. The vast Empire of Kublai Khan had fallen apart after his death. Central Asia was in a state of disorder. Caravans along the overland trade routes were continually threatened by robbers. For this reason Oriental products were expensive when they reached the coasts; merchants had to be paid for their risks. The repeated loading and unloading of these goods before they reached their final destination added to the cost. Taxes and tolls, in addition to the demand for the articles, sent prices soaring.

Factors That Influenced the Commercial Revolution. Even before the fall of Constantinople European nations were endeavoring to find a new way to China and India. The Crusades proved only a temporary boom for Venice. As the crusaders came in contact with the East their curiosity and desires were stimulated. The wealth of China and Japan, as described by Marco Polo, roused men's desire for those riches. Navigation was influenced by the Era of Enlightenment, for maritime instruments were either invented or introduced from the East. The compass, whose needle always pointed to the north magnetic pole, enabled sailors to keep their bearings. By means of the astrolabe they could estimate roughly their distance from the equator. The revived ideas concerning the sphericity of the earth and the newly discovered art of sailing against the wind aided the coming commercial revolution. The growth of nationalism was followed by a keen rivalry on the part of nations to gain

control of the eastern trade, by searching for new routes to India and China. When all of these factors got under way man's interests were broadened and his markets widened. Business along the Rialto became dull. Its first depression was caused by the Portuguese.

Prince Henry the Navigator, 1394-1460. In Portugal, maritime science, exploration, and discovery were aided during the early part of the fifteenth century by the King's son, Prince Henry, known as the Navigator. Through his influence better maps were made, the compass and astrolabe were improved, and seamen were given regular courses of instruction in navigation. Henry and other Portuguese scholars became convinced that India would be reached by sailing around Africa.

Portuguese Colonies in West Africa. Prince Henry financed several expeditions, and his sailors rediscovered the islands of Madeira (mă-dē'ră) and the Azores, which had been visited a century earlier by Genoese and Spanish ships. Pushing farther south, the Portuguese discovered the Canary Islands. Growing bolder, they reached Cape Verde, and two years after the death of Prince Henry their vessel dropped anchor off the coast of Sierre Leone. Nine years later they crossed the equator. Another decade passed and they were at the mouth of the Congo River.

Vasco da Gama. In the summer of 1497 Vasco da Gama (dă-gă'mă), in command of four little vessels, set sail from Lisbon, Portugal. His fleet sailed out into the broad Atlantic, took a southern course, rounded the Cape of Good Hope, skirted the eastern shore of Africa, and in May 1498 reached the city of Calicut on the southwest coast of India. A new route to the Orient had been found.

Portugal Establishes Trading Posts. The commercial prestige of the Mediterranean cities now begins to wane; the scene shifts to the Atlantic,—the Commercial Revolution is well under way. Da Gama was not received very cordially by the inhabitants of Calicut, but he saw enough of the city to convince him of its great wealth. With only 55 survivors out of his original crew of 170 men he returned to Portugal, where he was received with high honors and later made Admiral of the Indies. By the end of the sixteenth century

Portugal had important trading posts and colonies along the coasts of Africa and India, and in South America it owned Brazil.



From a painting in the Convent of La Rábida

COLUMBUS EXPLAINING HIS PLANS

Time and time again Columbus was forced to explain how the east could be reached by sailing due west.

Christopher Columbus, 1446-1506. Five years before Vasco da Gama set sail from Lisbon, the Genoese navigator Christopher Columbus left Palos, in command of three small ships. This was undoubtedly one of the most daring sea voyages of all time.

Besides the expense of fitting out ships for such a voyage, it was difficult to get crews to manage them. The great majority of people did not believe the earth was round. No one, to the sailors' knowledge, had ever crossed the Atlantic. No one knew how long the trip would last. At best a sailor's life in those days was far from comfortable. Ships were

small. Water had to be carried in barrels, there was no process or chemical to keep it pure, and it grew stagnant and full of microbes. There was no modern system of cold storage to preserve meats. Canned vegetables and fruits were unknown. When a voyage other than along the coast extended for more than a few weeks, impure food and stale water thinned the ranks of able-bodied seamen.

The Superstitions. Besides these realities we must remember the superstitions of the age, when the masses believed in witches, ghosts, and monsters who inhabited both land and sea. Nearly everyone believed the earth was flat, and that a ship if it sailed far enough would fall over the side into "Kingdom come." At last about one hundred men were secured, some of them convicts, to man the three little vessels, the *Niña*, the *Pinta*, and the *Santa Maria*.

Columbus Returns to Spain. Columbus was disappointed, in his first voyage, at not finding any of the large cities described by Marco Polo and others. He carried a letter from Ferdinand and Isabella to the Great Khan of Cathay (China), but the only inhabitants he met were the half-naked, red-skinned savages of "India." The *Santa Maria* had been wrecked and its timber was used as a dwelling. In January Columbus took several savages with him, and leaving some of his crew behind returned to Spain in the *Niña*. When the people of Palos heard that his vessel was in the harbor bells were rung, stores were closed, and a holiday was proclaimed. He was received with great honor by the sovereigns of Spain.

Later Voyages. Within the next ten years Columbus made three more voyages, but never suspected that he had discovered a New World. In the course of these voyages he discovered Porto Rico, Jamaica, the mainland of South America, Honduras, and the Isthmus of Panama; but he never once touched the mainland of North America.

Rival Claims of Spain and Portugal. When Columbus returned from his first voyage everyone was convinced that he had found a western route to India and China. At that time Da Gama had not reached Calicut, but Portugal claimed all the territory it discovered in its search for an eastern route. Spain claimed everything that Spanish explorers dis-



From the painting by Piloty

COLUMBUS ON THE DECK OF THE SANTA MARIA

As Piloty imagined the scene on the morning of October 12, 1492. Previous to actually sighting land the crew had been heartened by the sight of green twigs floating in the water and by flocks of land birds.

covered along the western route. A dispute arose between the two countries and the matter was referred to Pope Alexander VI.

Papal Line of Demarcation, 1493. In 1493 the Pope issued a bull which divided the undiscovered world between Spain and Portugal. He draw an imaginary line through the center of the earth, one hundred leagues (about 250 miles) west of the Azores. All territory discovered west of this line was to belong to Spain, all east of it to Portugal.

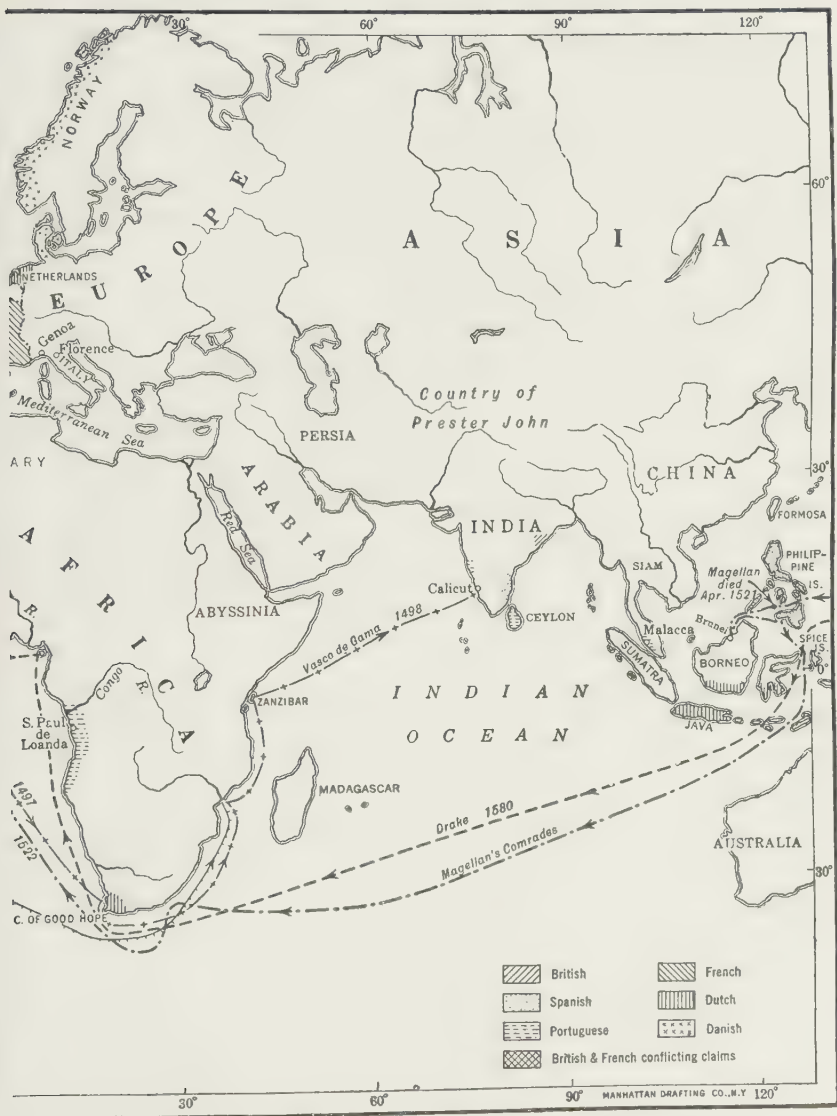
Treaty of Tordesillas, 1494. The papal "Line of Demarcation" was changed the next year by the Treaty of Tordesillas. The two nations agreed to have the line extended westward to 370 leagues from the Cape Verde Islands. A glance at the map will show that this gave all the new world to Spain except Brazil, which lay east of the line, and was discovered for Portugal by Cabral in 1500.

John Cabot. National rivalry prompted Henry VII to disregard the papal bull. England was not satisfied to stand by and see Spain and Portugal monopolize the wealth of the East. In 1496 Giovanni Caboto (jô-vä'nē kä-bō'tō) John the Skipper), a native of Genoa and a citizen of Venice, was given a patent by Henry to settle, explore, and claim all undiscovered heathen lands and seas—east, west, and north. In the spring of 1497 John Cabot (the English name) set sail from Bristol in one little boat, the *Mathew*, with a crew of only eighteen men. He returned to England the same year and reported that seven hundred leagues from England he "discovered land the territory of the grand Khan"; that he "coasted for three hundred leagues and landed (probably on the island of Cape Breton) and found two very large and fertile islands." Cabot enjoys the honor of being the first navigator during the time of Columbus to reach the mainland of the new continent. He claimed the "new-found land" for England. It was upon this voyage of Cabot's that England based her claim to the New World, soon to be called America.

Americus Vespucius. Americus Vespucius was a native of Florence and a citizen of Venice. In two voyages, one in 1499 under the Spanish flag and another in 1501 under that of Portugal, Vespucius noted by his astrolabe that he was



MAP OF THE WORLD SHOWING TREATY OF TORDESILLAS AND THE



EARLY EXPLORATIONS AND VOYAGES TO AFRICA, INDIA, AND AMERICA.

south of the equator. If you glance at the map you will notice that neither China nor India extends below the equatorial line. Vespuceius wrote to his friends and later published a brief account of his voyage. He described in glowing terms the country he had discovered. Among other things, he said: "We found what may be called a new world—since most of the ancients said that there was no continent below the equator." The pamphlets and letters of Vespuceius were translated and read throughout Europe.

Naming of the New World. In 1507 Martin Waldseemüller (vält'zā-mül'ēr), a German professor in the French College at St. Die, Lorraine, wrote an introduction to a new geography which also contained four letters of Vespuceius. Waldseemüller wrote that in addition to Europe, Asia, and Africa, a fourth continent had been discovered by Vespuceius, and that it ought to be called "Amerige or America, the land of Americus." A little later Waldseemüller made a map on which he placed the new continent and called it America. Thus it came about, as Muzzey says, "that this continent was named by an obscure German professor in a French college for an Italian navigator in the service of the King of Portugal."

Verrazano and Cartier. France was not to be outdone in this rush for wealth. In 1524 the French King jokingly asked to see old Adam's will, in which he bequeathed the world to Spain and Portugal. He then dispatched Giovanni Verrazano (vē'r-rät-sā'nō), an Italian navigator, to seek a western route to the Indies. Verrazano explored the coast of North America from the Carolinas to Newfoundland. In 1535 Jacques Cartier, a native of France, sailed up the St. Lawrence River in an attempt to find a northwest passage to the sea. His way was blocked by the Lachine (China) rapids. Outside of a few settlements established by fishermen, who made a good living from their large catches of cod and salmon along the Newfoundland coast, France did little in America until the seventeenth century. But when that time came, the explorations of Verrazano and Cartier were the basis for her claim to the New World.

Importance of the West Indies in 1519. By 1519 Haiti, Porto Rico, Jamaica, and Cuba were settled by Spanish col-

onists. The center of Spanish power in America was the West Indies. But most of the Spaniards were in search of gold and little interested in permanent colonization. Exploring expeditions left Santo Domingo, Isabella, and Havana to search for the bright yellow metal along the coasts, north and south. After the Spaniards became reasonably sure that gold could not be found near the shore line, the more venturesome left their ships and went boldly into the unexplored interior. The Isthmus of Panama, discovered by Columbus in 1502 and sometimes called Darien, was settled shortly afterwards.

Balboa Discovers the Pacific Ocean, 1513. In 1513 Vasco Nuñez de Balboa left the settlement of Darien and wandered across the Isthmus of Panama in search of gold. He crossed that narrow stretch of land and looked upon the broad waters of a mighty ocean, which he called the South Sea, and claimed for the King of Spain.

Ferdinand Magellan. Six years after Balboa discovered the South Sea Ferdinand Magellan (mă-jě'l'ăn), a Portuguese navigator in the employ of Charles V of Spain, left Seville in command of five little vessels. Magellan crossed the Atlantic and sailed southward along the coast of South America. As he neared the southern extremity of the continent, storms and heavy gales played havoc with his ships. The men mutinied, and Magellan suppressed the mutiny with great cruelty. Several were sent on shore to wander and die in Patagonia. The fleet then turned westward, passed through the strait that bears Magellan's name, and came out upon the South Sea. So quiet were its waters compared to those of the Atlantic that Magellan renamed it the Pacific Ocean.

His Discoveries. For more than three months they sailed westward. Magellan and his crew suffered terribly. They had little water and little food. They searched for rats and ate them. They chewed sawdust and pieces of sail—anything to satisfy their hunger. Many of the crew died from scurvy, hunger, and thirst. Toward the end of the third month land was sighted. The expedition landed on the Ladrões. Further on they discovered the Spice Islands, and sometime afterwards a large group of islands which were later called the Philippines in honor of Philip, the son of Charles V.



MAGELLAN'S FLEET

The sailors are taking soundings in the Strait of Magellan.

Circumnavigation of the Globe, 1519. Magellan was killed in the Philippines while fighting the natives. The remainder of the crew continued westward. They discovered the Moluccas (mô-lûk'áz), and passed Borneo. In July, 1522, the *Vittoria*, the only remaining ship of the five that set sail, in command of Sebastian del Cano, after crossing the Indian Ocean and rounding Africa anchored in the port of Seville. The *Vittoria*, with its thirty survivors, was the first vessel that ever circumnavigated the globe. This voyage proved beyond a doubt that the world was a sphere. It proved conclusively that America was not a part of China, but was a vast continent separated from that country by a broad ocean. By some historians this is considered a more heroic voyage than that of Columbus.

Conquest of Mexico by Cortez, 1520. While Magellan's crew were making their memorable voyage, Hernando Cortez left the West Indies with an expedition bent upon conquest, eager in the search for gold, and (strangely enough) anxious to convert the heathen natives. Cortez landed in Mexico, marked out a site for a settlement, ordered huts to be erected, and called the town La Villa Rica de Vera Cruze—(the rich

city of the true cross). Rumors reached Cortez of a great and rich country, governed by a mighty Emperor called Montezu'ma, a member of the ruling tribe of Az'tecs. Messengers from Montezuma came to Cortez and offered him gold and silver if he would leave the country. Gold and silver were what Cortez wanted, and he wanted it all. He burned his ships, so that his soldiers could not retreat; and with 450 men he plundered, murdered, and conquered the inhabitants of Mexico. He destroyed the temples of the Aztec God, and tried to force the Aztecs to accept Christianity. A few years later gold from Mexico was being loaded on Spanish treasure ships and carried to Spain to fill the coffers of the King.

Conquest of Peru by Pizarro, 1531. In 1531 Francisco Pizarro sailed from Darien southward along the western coast of Peru and conquered the Inca tribes, which had a much higher type of civilization than any other Indians on the continent, with the probable exception of the Aztecs. He used the same tactics in his conquest of Peru that Cortez had used in the conquest of Mexico. He captured Atahualpa (ä-tä-wäl'pä), the ruler of Peru, and promised to free him if he were given a room filled with gold. This was done, and the perfidy of Pizarro is shown in the way he broke that promise. Atahualpa was condemned to die. It was decided that he should be burned at the stake. But when the frightened Inca accepted Christianity, Pizarro ordered that he should have an easier death, and the converted worshiper of the Sun God was strangled instead.

Aztecs and Incas. We know too little of these very interesting tribes, the Aztécs and the Incas. Spanish plunderers were not interested in studying human beings or gathering scientific data; they wanted gold. The Indians were forced into the mines as slaves, and when some of the better Spaniards objected to this, negroes were captured and brought from Africa to dig gold and silver. Mule trains laden with the precious metals passed up the western coast and then across the isthmus, where the riches of the New World were loaded on vessels and sent to the Old World.

Spanish Treasure Ships and the Elizabethan "Sea Dogs." Not all of the treasure ships reached Spain, however; for

lying in wait along the coast were the Elizabethan "Sea Dogs," ever ready to capture these vessels and take them back to England, where they shared their booty with "good Queen Bess." As this marks the clash of England and Spain for the supremacy of the seas, it will be necessary to trace briefly the economic and political events of these two countries up to the time of Philip II and Queen Elizabeth.

Henry VIII and England's Navy. Henry VIII realized that England, in order to cope with European powers, must have a good navy. He was interested in ships and navigation. His shipwright friend, Fletcher of Rye, discovered the art of tacking, that is, of sailing against the wind. This art was unknown to European navigators at that time. Da Gama, Columbus, and Magellan made their memorable voyages without being able to tack. Fletcher's ship fought its way across the English Channel in the face of a stiff breeze. By 1545 Henry VIII had a modern sailing fleet, that could maneuver to advantage in either a gale or a naval conflict. The next year he established the office of The Admiralty and Marine Affairs.

Queen Elizabeth, 1558-1603. In 1558, the Princess Elizabeth was declared by Parliament to be the true and lawful heir to the throne. Upon the coronation of Elizabeth she immediately became embroiled in difficulties with France and the Papacy. Mary Stuart, Queen of Scotland, had become by marriage the Queen of France. Mary was a granddaughter of Margaret, sister of Henry VIII. Mary's friends claimed that Henry VIII's marriage with Anne Boleyn was illegal, and that therefore Elizabeth had no right to the throne. France, Scotland, and the Pope



QUEEN ELIZABETH

supported Mary, who also was a Catholic. English Protestants and Parliament supported Elizabeth.

Philip II and Elizabeth. Philip II, King of Spain, desired to marry Elizabeth, who was an attractive woman and besides would enhance his political power. Philip thought that with the Pope, France, and Scotland arrayed against her, his sister-in-law would jump at the opportunity of marrying him and securing the support of Spain. Philip wrote her glowing love letters, and told her that all she need do was to drop her Protestant faith, become a Catholic, and force her subjects to accept Catholicism. Elizabeth had no intention of marrying Philip, and she had no intention of becoming a Catholic; but as long as France thought there was a possibility of her marriage with Philip and an alliance with Spain, England was safe. So Elizabeth answered Philip's letters, but kept putting him off, and all the time this shrewd woman was gaining the love and loyalty of her subjects.

Elizabeth Favors Trade. Elizabeth placed the national currency on a firm basis. She took away from the foreign Hansa merchants at the steelyard many of their trading privileges and gave them to English merchants instead. She allowed her subjects to charge interest, up to ten per cent, on any money they loaned. All during the feudal period, it must be remembered, interest was supposed to be wicked and contrary to both the Old and New Testaments. Any kind of interest was considered usury. People did not consider the kindness of the lender, or the risk he was taking, or the benefit the borrower received.

Monopolies. Elizabeth granted monopolies to her favorites. For example, at one time she allowed Sir Walter Raleigh (rō'li) a monopoly on wine, which meant that he was the only man in the kingdom who could sell wine. Of course he could charge almost any price he desired. At another time he was the only man allowed to export wool from the kingdom, and he grew very wealthy.

England and Spain. When Philip realized that Elizabeth had no intention of turning Catholic and marrying him he did everything possible to annoy her, and she in turn did everything possible to annoy him. While he was fighting with the Protestant Netherlands she aided the Dutch. She

finally established peaceful relations with France, and as long as she remained on friendly terms with that country Philip did not dare to declare war on England. The advisers of Elizabeth wanted her to go to war against Philip, but she would not do it; for she realized that her country was becoming stronger and richer and happier every day peace was maintained. Besides, she had a better way of striking at Philip—her sea captains, the “Sea Dogs,” were at her command.

Francis Drake—John Hawkins. The greatest of these was Francis Drake, whose early training had been gained in South American waters under the African slave trader John Hawkins. Hawkins was another of the Elizabethan Sea Dogs, who brought many a treasure ship of King Philip’s to England and sent others to the bottom of the sea.

Drake Preys on Spanish Treasure Ships. In 1577 Francis Drake was secretly commissioned by his Queen to “sing King Philip’s beard,” by plundering his vessels. Drake set out from England with a small fleet. When he reached South America he had but one ship left. With this he passed through the Strait of Magellan. He sailed up the west coast of South America, capturing one Spanish vessel after another. The people fled from the coast towns when they heard that Drake was near. He lay in wait for a treasure ship worth a million dollars that was bound for the Philippines. After he had captured it he sailed north, entered a bay above San Francisco, repaired his ships, and then set out across the Pacific.

Sails Around the Earth. Drake reached home by sailing round the Cape of Good Hope. He was the first Englishman to circumnavigate the globe. It was safer for him to do this than to return by way of the Atlantic, where the Spanish fleets were now waiting for him along the South American coast. The Sea Dogs shared their spoils with the Queen and with the men who financed and built their ships, but they knew very well that if they were caught by King Philip Elizabeth would give them no aid.

Knighted by the Queen. All England and Spain had heard of Drake’s captures. Philip demanded that Elizabeth punish him. Spanish war ships were stationed on the look-

out for the *Golden Hind*, Drake's vessel. Amidst all this excitement the *Golden Hind* pulled into Plymouth, and soon afterward Queen Elizabeth went on board. The Queen bade Francis Drake to kneel. And while the Spanish King and his ambassadors were asking for the life of her sea captain, Elizabeth gave him the accolade and said, "I bid thee rise, Sir Francis Drake."



DRAKE KNIGHTED BY QUEEN ELIZABETH

Raleigh's Colony at Roanoke. Such was England's Queen. Stirring were the days and bold were the men of her time. Sir Walter Raleigh spent a great deal of his money trying to colonize the eastern coast of North America. It was easy enough to get colonists. When Henry VIII had

confiscated the monasteries many of the poor people, who had depended upon the charity of those institutions, were at a loss to know what to do. In addition, many of the small farmers were driven off their lands. Wealthy persons bought the farms, enclosed them, and raised sheep, which was more profitable than agriculture. Raleigh's first colonists landed at Roanoke Island, off the coast of North Carolina. This territory was called Virginia, in honor of Elizabeth, the Virgin Queen. The colony failed, just as all of Raleigh's attempts did, and England was forced to wait until the seventeenth century before a permanent colony was established.

Destruction of the Spanish Armada, 1588. In 1588 Philip II decided to invade England. He wanted to get rid of the menace to Spanish commerce, and at the same time to secure the predominance of Catholicism. He gathered together a mighty fleet of 149 vessels, manned by 30,000 men. In the shape of a half-moon this fleet, called the Invincible Armada, sailed into the English Channel. All England rallied to the support of their Queen and country. Catholics and Protestants united. Elizabeth appointed Lord Howard, a Catholic, as high admiral of her fleet. Sir Francis Drake was second in command. An English fleet of 197 ships, many of them mere fishing smacks, was hurriedly collected. Fire ships were sent among the Spanish vessels. The Armada scattered in alarm and headed for the North Sea, where many of the ships either caught fire or were captured. Others tried to escape by sailing northward around Scotland. These were caught in a storm and the majority were lost. Only sixty-seven ships out of the entire fleet returned to Spain.

Spanish Sea Power Broken. The war continued and extended to America and India. When two new rulers ascended the throne of Spain and England, peace was declared. But the Spanish sea power was broken and England's star was rising.

The end of this conflict brings us into the seventeenth century. We have followed the chief movements of the Era of Enlightenment during the three preceding centuries. The next two centuries will include a new Epoch. The outstanding events will be a growth of absolutism on the part of European

rulers, and the colonial expansion of their countries in Asia and America.



THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Name and give a brief account of the great movements during the Era of Enlightenment.
2. Name five men who played a prominent part in each movement, who lived about the same time.
3. State the relationship of the following discoveries of this period to the present history of the United States: Haiti, Cuba, Isthmus of Panama, Philippines, Porto Rico, Honduras.
4. Upon what did Spain, Portugal, England, and France base their claims to America?
5. How did the Renaissance influence the discovery of America?
6. What caused the high prices of Oriental goods over the old trade routes? What causes high prices today? In what way are the causes in both cases the same?
7. How has the route to India around Africa been shortened? How has the route to China from America been shortened?
8. How did the Commercial Revolution affect the widening of markets and the broadening of interests?
9. Write a composition showing how, during the Era of Enlightenment, education, religion, commerce, government, and methods of making a living differed from those of Feudalism. These changes might also be explained by the use of a chart, a picture, or a cartoon.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. See Chapter XXII in Webster's *Readings in European History* for an account of the Indians of Venezuela, Florida, the Carolinas, and California; also the account of Martin Frobisher (another Elizabethan sea captain) describing the Eskimos.

II. In the same book, Chapter XXIV gives a description of Elizabethan England; a report on this would be interesting.

III. Brief reports on the Conquest of Mexico and Peru, on the lives of Ponce de Leon, De Sota, and other Spanish adventurers, as well as on Sir Humphrey Gilbert and Martin Frobisher, will make the story of these times much clearer and more real.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

WOOD	<i>Elizabethan Sea Dogs</i>	Yale Univ. Press
CHENEY	<i>Industrial and Social England</i>	Macmillan
BENNETT-HANIPHY	<i>Historical Readings</i>	Rand

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PRESCOTT	<i>Conquest of Mexico</i>	Lippincott
PRESCOTT	<i>Conquest of Peru</i>	Lippincott

HISTORICAL NOVELS

JOHNSTON	1492 (Romance of the times of Columbus)	Little
KINGSLEY	<i>Westward Ho</i> (Elizabethan Sea Life)	Macmillan

PART II
EPOCHS OF WORLD PROGRESS

EPOCH SIX

ABSOLUTISM AND COLONIAL EXPANSION

In contrast with Feudalism, the Era of Enlightenment was an age in which the progress of civilization made rapid strides. A feeling of national sentiment and unity replaced the political hodgepodge that had existed under the feudal system. Certain Asiatic inventions were introduced into western Europe, and the lives of the Europeans were revolutionized. Other outstanding movements of that period were the Renaissance, the Reformation, and the Commercial Revolution.

Epoch Six will tell of the growth of Absolutism and the resulting Colonial Expansion during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. It will tell how the kings and emperors of western Europe gained absolute authority over the lives of their subjects; how those rulers fought for colonial empires in the newly discovered lands; how many of their subjects, in order to escape the political and religious persecution of the times, settled in parts of America, Asia, and Africa. It will tell, too, of other motives for colonization, and the results of that movement.

CHAPTER XXIII

BOURBON AUTOCRACY

Absolutism. The seventeenth and eighteenth centuries constitute an age of absolutism and colonial expansion. The tendency of sovereigns was to gain autocratic control over their subjects. This absolutism not only manifested itself in the machinery of government, but regulated the social, economic, and religious fortunes of man.

Divine Right of Kings. Kings and emperors claimed that their power was derived from God, and that they were not responsible to the people for their actions. This theory, known as the "Divine Right of Kings," was as old as authentic history. We first heard of it in Egypt. The kings along the Fertile Crescent could hardly write personal letters without informing their readers of the divine origin of kingship. We noticed the same theory maintained by Alexander the Great in Greece, and by the Cæsars in Rome. In Europe, during the eighth century, Charlemagne and his father before him talked about being the chosen of God.

The Autocrats of Europe. At the dawn of the seventeenth century the absolute rulers relied upon this theory to strengthen their positions. In England, however, as early as 1649 the people led their autocratic King to the scaffold and defied all theory. But it was not until the latter part of the eighteenth century that France endeavored to break the bonds of absolutism. The nineteenth century witnessed many political revolutions all tending to crush autocracy, but it took the World War of the twentieth century to put an end to divine right pretensions in Austria, Prussia, and Russia.

Influence of Enlightenment on Absolutism. Until the beginning of the fourteenth century, with few exceptions, autocracy had rather an easy time in the world. The masses were ignorant, superstitious, and ready to believe almost everything their august rulers claimed. But thanks to the

scholars, scientists, and inventors of the preceding Epoch, the people of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in western Europe were more enlightened. Intelligence was seeping down through the favored few of the upper classes into the ranks of the common people. And while autocracy held sway for a few centuries, the fire in men's souls was smoldering, ready to flame into open rebellion before those centuries closed. This was due in part to a more enlightened public, just as in our own day and country the intelligent participation of the voters in elections will sound the death knell of "invisible government."

Colonial Expansion. Side by side with absolutism, during this period, went colonial expansion. Nations competed with one another for the commerce and wealth of India, Africa, and America. Men left Europe to escape the economic depression in their own countries, and settled in those far away places where there were more opportunities to make a living and even to gain wealth. Other people colonized rather than suffer from the political and religious tyranny of autocrats. Some sought fame and some were fugitives from justice, but all took part in empire building.

The Problem of Epoch Six. In brief, the main problems of this Epoch were an attempt on the part of sovereigns to secure and maintain absolute governments, and a keen competition on the part of nations for colonial possessions in the newly discovered lands throughout the world. The outstanding events during the age of absolutism and colonial expansion did not all begin simultaneously, on a certain day, and end at a definite period. They emerged slowly, were the predominating movements for a while, and then as gradually faded into the past,—perhaps to become, in turn, contributing causes for even greater events.

Henry IV, 1589-1610. We have already noted in Chapter XXI how Henry IV, the first of the Bourbon kings of France, inherited the throne in 1589. For nearly five years after that date Henry was forced to fight for his inheritance. The Pope, the French Catholics, and Philip II of Spain combined against him. The Catholic leaders were desirous of placing their own candidate on the throne. Philip, through the marriage of his daughter to a French Catholic prince, hoped to gain

control of France. Henry thwarted this plan when he accepted Catholicism. The Pope was satisfied. The argument of the Catholic leaders that Henry was a heretic was shattered. Patriotism on the part of the majority of Frenchmen prompted them to stand by Henry rather than be dominated by a Spanish king. In the latter part of March, 1594, after a long siege, Henry IV entered Paris in triumph. On the same day the Spanish troops of Philip II marched out of the city; and Henry, as he saluted their leaders, remarked: "Commend me to your master, but do not return." Thus ended forty years of religious civil wars and foreign interference in France. The task that confronted the new King was a difficult one—the reconstruction of a disunited and war-torn country.

Effect of Religious Wars on Centralization. During the conflict many of the nobles regained the feudal rights enjoyed by their ancestors before the time of Louis XI (Chapter XVIII). The Protestant nobles were strong enough to defy the King's forces and establish independent governments of their own. The Kings, in order to secure the loyalty of powerful nobles among the Catholic party, were forced to grant these subjects certain concessions. The most noteworthy of these was the exemption from taxation. As the royal authority weakened, the Catholic nobles who had formerly been appointed governors over certain provinces set up their own independent governments in these districts. The smaller nobles, in turn, challenged the authority of the governors, and ruled their own lands or towns as they saw fit. All the evils of Feudalism were gradually being restored.

Condition of the Third Estate. With no strong central government, and in the absence of law and order, the highways were infested with all sorts of criminals. Farms, villages, and towns that escaped the pillaging of contending armies were subject to attacks from robber barons who had seized and fortified nearby castles, and who, like the barons of feudal days, plundered the surrounding country. Trade was hindered, and in many places the town fairs were discontinued. Added to these troubles, the peasants and merchants were often forced to pay illegal government taxes in the form of farm products or merchandise.

France a Bankrupt Nation. Besides this topsy-turvy situation, Henry inherited a bankrupt treasury. There was no money to pay government officials, or to maintain an army or navy. France owed large sums of money and the interest on these loans was accumulating. Furthermore, there was no adequate system of taxation, by which the King could control the revenues of his realm. Much of this power, as we have just seen, had been usurped by the warring nobles.

Henry IV Secures Order in France. From the above it is plain that the first steps taken by Henry IV towards centralization were due to sheer necessity. At the head of his army he subdued one province after another. The castles of the robber barons were stormed and their occupants punished. The small independent nobles were forced to submit to the King's authority. Some of the powerful dukes were given large sums of money to surrender their privileges to the crown—this was cheaper than war. The Edict of Nantes, 1598 (Chapter XXI), pacified the Huguenots. The same year Henry made a treaty with Spain, thus ending the war with Philip which had practically closed four years before. Civil strife and foreign wars were now over, and order was restored throughout the kingdom. Trade began to pick up and the peasants took a new hold on life. The nobles naturally did not relish the change since it deprived them of their power, and the clergy were not pleased with the Edict of Nantes, so both were ready to scheme against the King and the new order of things.

Estates General Not Convened. Since the Estates General had plotted against his accession, and because of the hostility of the nobility and the clergy, Henry never called a meeting of that body to aid him in his reconstruction plans.

French Parlements. There was another group of men that the King could have called on for assistance, but they too had proved unfriendly. These were the men who formed the French Parlements. The Parlements of France must not be confused with the English Parliament. The former had come into existence in France during the feudal period. Their duty was merely to register the laws. Parlements existed in every large city. The Parlement of Paris, because

of its location in the capital, was of particular importance. While it had no legislative power, under weak rulers it could influence legislation by refusing to register the King's edicts, thereby showing its disapproval of his acts. Of course, there was no law concerning a particular matter if lawyers were unable to find it registered on the statute books. Henry placed his own friends over the Parlements, and in this way he controlled them.

Assembly of Notables. However, the King did call an Assembly of Notables, composed of representatives of the



THE AWAKENING OF THE
THIRD ESTATE

A cartoon showing how nearly two centuries after the time of Henry IV the Third Estate finally regained its power, terrifying the other two Estates.

clergy (the First Estate), the nobility (the Second Estate), and the great middle class (the Third Estate). A committee of this assembly was appointed to take charge of the business affairs of the government. The committee could see no way out of the financial difficulty, and of its own accord asked Henry to assume the responsibility. Thus, as MacDonald says, "No sphere was opened in which men might have learned statecraft and gained ex-

perience in government." The Estates General, the Parlements, and the Assembly of Notables—all were finally ignored.

The Duke of Sully. The way was prepared for absolutism, and the people of France were partly to blame. Henry now appointed a *Conseil d'Affaires* which included a few trusted ministers. The most influential of these was the Duke of Sully, an old comrade of Henry's during the religious wars. Sully was made Superintendent of Finances, and with the aid of the King started a series of reforms that brought prosperity to France.

Taxes Reduced. Before the accession of Henry the privilege of collecting taxes had been sold to the highest bidder.

These tax-collectors gathered enormous sums from the people, but only a small part of it ever reached the Kings for government expenses. Sully did away with this and had the taxes paid directly to the government. This gave the King more money and at the same time permitted him to lower the taxes of his subjects.

The Taille. The land tax, or *taille* (tä'y') as it was called, had hitherto fallen on the farmers and other members of the Third Estate, since the nobility in many cases were excused from paying it. This exemption was taken away from the nobles, who were thus forced to contribute their share to the commonweal.

The Gabelle. In several instances money was raised by unfair means. The first of these was the *gabelle*, or tax on salt. Salt was a necessity and everyone used it. In order to gain the support of some of the provinces Henry had promised them exemption from the salt tax. The consequence of this was that the people in the provinces who were not exempt had to pay higher taxes to make up the loss incurred by the government because of those who did not pay the *gabelle*.

The Paulette. Another vicious method of raising money was the *paulette* (pō-lět'). This was a tax of a certain per cent of the purchase price of judgeships. That is, if a man desired a judicial office he purchased it from the government. The office became hereditary on condition that each year the holder of the office pay to the King his *paulette*, one-sixtieth of the amount originally paid for the office.

Reforms of Henry. By these means money was raised to carry on and improve the government. The national debt was paid, roads were built, canals were dug, marshes were drained. Henry encouraged agriculture by removing the high export duty on grain, thus permitting farmers to sell their products in the best markets. He aided the silk industry and other manufactures. He stimulated commerce by protecting merchant ships from pirates; and he made favorable tariff treaties with other countries.

France a World Power. France was placed on a firm financial basis. The country became prosperous. A surplus in the treasury enabled the King to start a navy and build

up his army. He favored and aided colonial enterprise in Canada by giving trade monopolies to certain subjects, on condition that they organize stock companies and send colonists to America each year. Within twelve years this first Bourbon King had brought his bankrupt and internally divided kingdom to the proud position of a world power.

Death of Henry IV. Henry now desired to strengthen his position in Europe by making war on the Austrian House of Hapsburg, whose power he feared. He assembled three large armies on his frontiers. He had his wife Marie de' Medici (of the famous Medici family of Florence) crowned as regent, to rule the country during his absence. After the ceremony he started for the front. As he sat in his carriage, which had stopped in a narrow street of Paris, he was assassinated by a young maniac. The reign of "Good King Henry," as his subjects called him, was ended.

Louis XIII, 1610-1643. Henry's son, Louis XIII, was but nine years old. Marie de' Medici received from the Parlement of Paris permission to rule as regent until her son reached his majority. The Queen mother was unfamiliar with governmental affairs. She dismissed Sully because she disliked him personally. She surrounded herself with selfish favorites, who were continually scheming and plotting. The nobles, well aware of the weakness of the government, would rebel. The regent would then give them large sums of money to regain their loyalty. After a short time the same nobles would rebel again—not that they were particularly dissatisfied with anything, but only that they desired to be given more money to cease rebelling. Finally, as the King grew older, his favorites plotted against the favorites of Marie de' Medici. Civil war broke out between the followers of mother and son. To add to the disorder, the Huguenots revolted. The treasury was empty and the country again disunited, as in the days before Henry IV. The stage was now set for one of the most famous of French statesmen—Cardinal Richelieu (rē'shē lyû').

Last Meeting of Estates General before 1789. Richelieu first attracted public attention in 1614. In the autumn of that year the Queen called the Estates General together. Nothing was accomplished by that body to restore peace in

France. No attempt was made to control the expenditures and the collection of public moneys. No system was devised to check royal authority. The three orders quarreled with each other, were dismissed, and were not assembled again until 1789, on the eve of the French Revolution. As the orator for his order, the clergy, the bishop of Richelieu had spoken in the Estates General for more than an hour. His speech was filled with his political ideas, which he knew were also those of the Queen; and he was very careful to extol and praise her methods of government.

Richelieu, 1585-1642. As a reward for these efforts Richelieu became her confidential adviser. By 1620 Louis XIII and his mother were reconciled. A few years later the Pope, through the influence of Louis and the Queen mother, made Richelieu a cardinal. In 1624, because of his marked ability, he became a minister in the Council of the King and a little later first minister of the land. From this time until his death in 1642 Richelieu was the real ruler of France.

Richelieu's Political Program. Richelieu started his ministry with three avowed purposes in view: first, to overthrow the political and military power of the Huguenots, which had been granted them by Henry IV through the Edict of Nantes; second, to lay low the pride of the nobility, who were continually plotting against the King's authority; and third, to make Louis XIII the most renowned ruler of Europe by crushing the Spanish and Austrian Hapsburgs. His policy was to make the King's power absolute in France, and to make France the supreme power in Europe.

End of Huguenot Power, 1628. The Huguenots were planning to set up an independent Protestant government. In fact, they had already divided their territory into seven departments and were preparing to make La Rochelle (lâ rô-shêl'), a city on the western coast, their capital. Richelieu doffed his clerical robe, put on a military uniform, and commanded in person the siege of La Rochelle. The city held out for more than a year, encouraged by an alliance with England. But English aid from the sea was cut off by the besieging army, which had constructed a large stone mole (massive work of masonry laid in the sea) over a mile long.



From the painting by Delort

RICHELIEU AND HIS CATS

An unusual portrait of "The Iron Cardinal." We see here an indication of those gentler qualities which won him in youth the epithet of "the fascinating duke."

The city was forced to surrender in 1628. La Rochelle was the principal fortress of the Huguenots. One after another their cities were subdued, and the Protestant political power was broken. The following year a treaty was made, called the Edict of Grace, which granted the Protestants freedom of worship.

Absolutism in France. To offset any conspiracies against his personal powers, as well as against the King's authority, Richelieu maintained an extensive spy system. Men accused of a political offense were denied a trial in the ordinary law courts, but were tried before special commissions appointed by the crown. The Parlement was forbidden to discuss or question any state edict. Special agents, called intendants, were appointed to visit and supervise all the local officers and report to the King any irregularities. Local authorities were forbidden to levy taxes or to make loans without the King's consent. In fact, under Richelieu all government agencies were centralized and absolutism was firmly established. The conspiring noble was quickly reported by some unknown spy, arrested, tried by the King's minions, and forced to pay the penalty. In Richelieu the French nobility soon learned they had met their master. With the power of the nobles broken, the Cardinal-minister could now turn to his third task—the humbling of the Hapsburgs.

Thirty Years' War, 1618-1648. The Thirty Years' War at this time was well under way, and the opportunity was at hand for Richelieu to strike at the Hapsburgs. To understand the causes of this war, and the part that France was to play in the struggle, it is necessary to go back to the Peace of Augsburg (Chapter XXI). By the terms of that treaty the ruler in each of the states in Germany was to decide whether his subjects were to be Catholics or Protestants. Another clause stated that an ecclesiastical ruler who accepted Protestantism was to surrender his church property to the Catholic authorities. In many instances the Lutherans, who broke with the Papacy, refused to do this, claiming that the provision was unjust. The two sects were continually at odds, and herein lay one of the remote causes of the coming war. The Protestants finally organized an Evangelical Union for protection against Catholic interference in their

affairs. The Catholics retaliated the next year by forming a Holy League. Both sides were lining up.

Motives of the Participants. The Holy League looked to the Hapsburg Emperors for support. Those sovereigns were only too glad to give it, since they wished to unite the German states and increase their royal power and prestige in Europe. German territory was desired by several other European countries. This being the case, the Evangelical Union was also assured of allies, mostly Protestant nations, perfectly willing to lend their aid not only for religious reasons, but for political purposes.

Status of the Calvinists. The Calvinists were not included in the Peace of Augsburg. They were looked upon as heretics by both Lutherans and Catholics. Except in a few states, they enjoyed little if any political or religious liberty.

Ferdinand Elected King of Bohemia. In Bohemia many of the nobility, as well as the common people, were Calvinists; and it was in that country, the home of John Huss, that the war began. In 1617 the Catholic states in Bohemia elected Ferdinand, a staunch Catholic and member of the Hapsburg family, as King of the entire country. They also insisted that the crown of Bohemia should be the hereditary right of the Hapsburgs.

Bohemian Discontent. Under former kings the Calvinists had enjoyed religious toleration. Ferdinand proceeded to do away with this. He forbade the Protestants to worship in some of their churches in and around Prague, the capital, and sent officials to enforce his edicts. These dignified gentlemen were thrown from a castle window by the Calvinist leaders. Shortly after this the Protestant states appointed Frederick, a German Elector of their own faith, as King. With a great display of enthusiasm he was crowned at Prague, in 1618.

Bohemia Crushed. The following year Ferdinand was elected Emperor, and he decided to punish the Bohemian rebels. With a large army and plenty of resources, he was able to overrun the country. Thousands of Protestants were driven into exile, and those who remained within the country were forced to accept Roman Catholicism. The Lutherans refused to aid the Calvinists in this struggle.

Danish Period, 1625-1629. Elated by his success in Bohemia, Ferdinand II now prepared to subdue the rest of the German Protestant states. The European powers became alarmed at the growing strength of the Hapsburgs; and so the second phase of the war, known as the Danish period, began.

Scandinavian Countries. The Treaty of Calmar (Chapter XVIII) had united the Scandinavian countries of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. During the time of Martin Luther, Sweden withdrew from the Union under the leadership of Gustavus Vasa, who had been crowned King of the newly formed government. Within the next few years Lutheranism spread through the entire peninsula. The monasteries were closed and the Catholic clergy forced to surrender all church property to the Kings of those northland countries.

Danish King Defeated. The Danish period of the Thirty Years' War began in 1625, under Christian IV, King of Norway and Denmark. The Danish King was not only a Protestant, he was the Duke of Holstein, a province in northern Germany. He entered the war as the champion of German Protestantism. Calvinists and Lutherans rallied to his standard. He was supported by England and the Protestant Netherlands. But the forces of Christian IV were crushed, first by an army under Count Tilly, and then by Hapsburg troops under Wallenstein (wōl'ën-stin). In 1629 the ruler of Denmark, defeated on all sides, retired from the struggle.

Edict of Restitution, 1629. With Bohemia and Denmark out of the way, Ferdinand issued the Edict of Restitution. This contained a demand that all Protestants throughout Germany who had seized church possessions since the Peace of Augsburg were to return them. Wallenstein, one of the cruelest men of this period, who allowed his armies to devastate and pillage both Catholic and Protestant farms and homes and who grew personally wealthy by plundering the common people, was ordered to enforce the edict.

Swedish Period, 1630-1635. The Protestant cause seemed lost as the brutal Wallenstein proceeded upon his task. But at this juncture there appeared in northern Germany an army of 16,000 Swedes, under their Lutheran King, Gustavus Adolphus—the Lion of the North. Two motives prompted

Gustavus to interfere in this war. The first was a sincere desire to aid his fellow Protestants, and the second was a fear that the armies of the Emperor would gain control of the Baltic regions, some of which Sweden possessed and others of which she desired to annex.



GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS

The Swedish King and his army before the Battle of Lutzen.

Battle of Lutzen, 1632. The story of Sweden's participation in the war is a repetition of devastations, murders, battles, and sufferings. In November, 1632, the Imperial forces under Wallenstein and the armies of Gustavus Adolphus met at Lutzen in Saxony. Neither of the two leaders had ever been defeated in battle. After a long, hard conflict the Imperial troops were routed and the Hapsburg ambitions foiled. It was a sad victory for the Swedes, for at the head of a cavalry charge their popular leader penetrated too far into the ranks of the enemy and was killed. But the Protestant cause was saved.

Swedish-French Period, 1635-1648. After the death of Gustavus Adolphus the Swedish army remained in Germany. There was no serious fighting, however, and the war might have ended, as both sides were exhausted. But the opportunity for which Richelieu was waiting had arrived. He saw that his chance was at hand to crush the Hapsburgs and extend the boundaries of France to the Rhine. Cardinal Richelieu was an official of the Catholic Church. His King, Louis XIII, had married Anne of Austria, a Hapsburg princess and daughter of Philip III of Spain. From this it is obvious that the war lost many of its religious and national aspects when Richelieu entered the conflict on the side of the Swedes and of Protestant Germany.

Spain, which was governed by another branch of the Hapsburgs, joined the forces of the Emperor. But in the end the Hapsburg allies were forced by the Franco-Swedish alliance to submit. Thus, the four-act tragedy called the Thirty Years' War was closed, in 1648, by the Treaty of Westphalia.

Treaty of Westphalia, 1648. By the terms of that treaty the Edict of Restitution was withdrawn, and the Calvinists were given the same religious status as was enjoyed by the Lutherans. The most important political clauses were as follows. (1) The independence of Switzerland and of the Dutch Republic was acknowledged. (2) Sweden was given Pomerania, which assured her the control of the Baltic. Other portions of Germany were ceded to Sweden, on condition that they remain a part of the Empire. (3) The different states of the Holy Roman Empire were given such powers that the emperor became a mere figurehead. The larger states were allowed to coin money, make treaties with foreign nations, and form alliances among themselves but not against the Empire. (4) Brandenburg—the future kingdom of Prussia, which in turn was to become the dominating state of the German Empire—received territory along the Baltic. (5) France received Metz, Verdun, Toul, and the Province of Alsace west of the Rhine. The first three cities played a vital part in American history during the World War, while Alsace has continued to be a bone of contention between France and Germany right down to our own times. But



BOUNDARIES CREATED BY THE TREATY OF WESTPHALIA

what was more important to France, the Austrian Hapsburgs were weakened. After the Treaty of Westphalia, the emperors of the Holy Roman Empire were forced to confine themselves to Austria, and to the territory at the east inhabited mostly by a non-German people with different languages, customs, and ideas.

Effects of Thirty Years' War on Germany. Thirty years of warfare, fought in German territory, had its effect on that country. All of the contending armies had lived off the land, with the exception of the troops under Gustavus Adolphus. The Swedish King had a well organized commissary department and base of supplies. The advantage of such an organization was hardly grasped by the other nations, whose troops were forced to plunder and steal in order to live. Conse-

quently, German farms were laid waste, towns and homes were sacked, trades and industries were neglected, commerce came to a standstill, and the Hanseatic League became a thing of the past. Men, women, and children, poorly nourished, became easy preys to disease. Epidemics spread through the rank and file of the people. With a population of thirty millions at the beginning of the war, Germany had but a little over twelve millions at its close. Poverty, vice, and unhappiness reigned. The finer things of life were thrust into the background. At a critical period in world progress, while other European nations were organizing strong governments, establishing colonies, and building up commercial interests, the German states were forced to recover from the long and devastating war. Belated because of this, one need not wonder at Germany's frantic rush for world power in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

Death of Richelieu—His Work. Richelieu died in 1642, six years before the Treaty of Westphalia; but he had succeeded in making the Bourbon King an absolute ruler, and autocratic France a predominating European nation. His efforts were not confined to Europe alone. He organized a great trading company to compete with English and Dutch commercial companies in the colonizing of America. This was known as the Company of One Hundred Associates, so called because it permitted but one hundred shareholders. The story of the French pathfinders in America, who worked for this company in the wilds of Canada, will be told later. He encouraged French settlements on the coast of Guiana (gē-ä'nä), in the northeastern part of South America, and in the West Indian Islands of Martinique (mār'tī-nēk') and St. Domingo. He competed with Portuguese, Dutch, and English for eastern colonization and trade by aiding the first attempts to settle the island of Madagascar, off the eastern coast of Africa in the Indian Ocean.

Louis XIV, 1643-1715. In less than six months after the death of Richelieu, Louis XIII died. His son, who succeeded him as Louis XIV, was but five years old. During the minority of the King the government was placed in charge of his mother, Anne of Austria. She chose as her minister Cardinal Mazarin (măz-ä-rēn'), an Italian, who as the friend

and confidant of Richelieu continued the policy of absolutism.

Louis XIV His Own Premier. Mazarin died in 1661, and Louis XIV, now twenty-three years of age, announced that he would be his own prime minister. His reign, covering a period of seventy-two years, was the longest in European history.

His Idea of Kingship. In Louis XIV the theory of divine right had one of its greatest advocates. His ideas on this subject are expressed in his own words: "Kings are absolute lords; to them belongs naturally the full and free disposal of all the property of their subjects, whether they be churchmen or laymen." "For subjects to rise against their prince, however wicked and oppressive he may be, is always infinitely criminal. God, who

has given kings to men, has willed that they should be revered as his lieutenants and has reserved to himself alone the right to review their conduct. His will is that he who is born a subject should obey without question."

Colbert and the Budget System. During the first twenty years of Louis' reign France made great strides in commerce, industry, and finance. This was due to the untiring efforts of Colbert (kôl-bâr'), minister of finance. However, under the absolute rule of Louis XIV the expenses of government became greater than the income. As aids in restoring a balance between income and outgo, Colbert introduced new

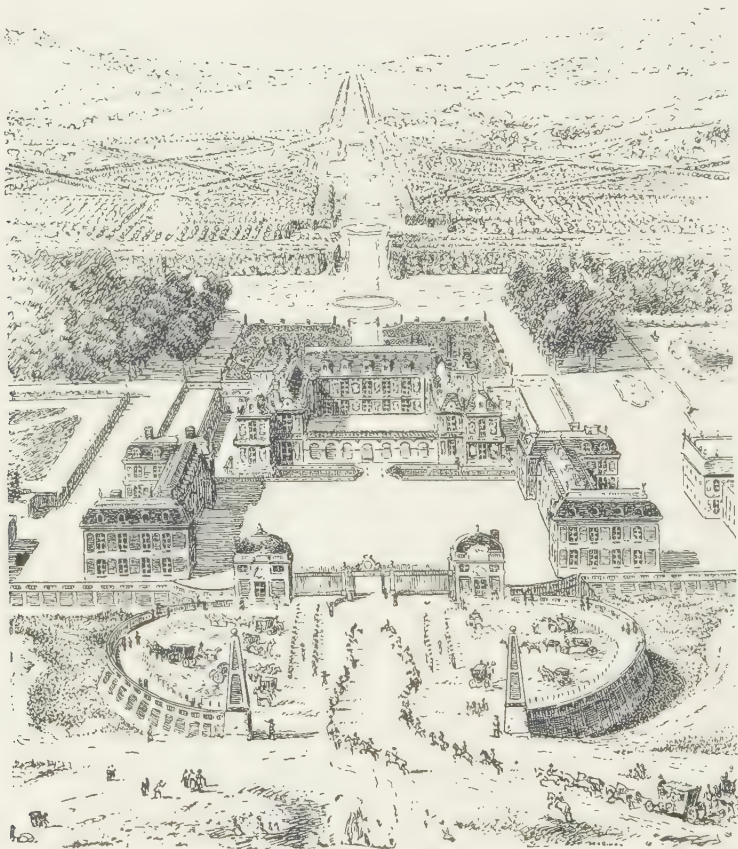


LOUIS XIV

methods of tax collection and established a budget system. Under this plan he first made a list of all the probable expenses of government for the following year. His next step was to take measures for the raising of the necessary money. The budget system, which has been adopted by most civilized countries, enables a nation to keep its income equal to its outgo, thereby avoiding deficits.

Extravagance of the Monarch. But all the economy and genius of Colbert were unable to offset the lavish display of the monarch. While Louis worked hard as a king, and supervised the most minute details of his kingdom, he loved display, luxury, and flattery. To satisfy all of those desires he had an enormous palace built at Versailles, more than a quarter of a mile long. Its numerous rooms were filled with works of art, paintings, expensive furniture, and decorations. Thousands of people were forced to help in its construction, without pay. Beautiful fountains, parks, and glassed-in orange groves were placed around the palace. Not satisfied with this, Louis erected another smaller palace nearby called the Trianon. So enormous were the expenses that it is said Louis himself became alarmed and destroyed the accounts. Some historians have estimated the cost at one hundred million dollars, all of which had to be paid by the people, and by those people who were least able to pay.

The Court of Louis XIV. In the splendor of the Versailles palace Louis XIV held his court. He was the most absolute ruler of Europe. Nobles no longer threatened the King's power. They no longer occupied strong castles. Instead, they were employed by the King as courtiers to come and live at court, to entertain and be entertained. They considered it an honor to be allowed to prepare his bath or to hand him his shirt in the morning. They were continually striving to gain his favor, in order to receive pensions or lucrative positions. Most of them were exempt from taxation. No wonder they willingly called him the "Grand Monarch" and the "Sun King"; flattery was the only thing that kept some of them at court. Louis was anxious to impress other rulers with his importance. In this he was successful. He became the model for other kings and his court was copied throughout western Europe.



From the painting by Patel

THE PALACE OF VERSAILLES

Once the beautiful residence and playground of the Bourbon Kings, the palace of Versailles is now a national museum. The usual approach is from the rear, across the great paved courtyard. The front overlooks the magnificent terrace and the extensive formal gardens with their spectacular fountains.

The Triple Alliance, 1667. French absolutism had now reached its highest point. From this time on, the foreign wars, the enormous taxes, and the general misery of the French people gradually undermined this autocratic system. The attempt of Louis to seize the Spanish Netherlands in





1667 alarmed Holland. England and Sweden united with the Dutch to form the Triple Alliance, and forced Louis to return much of the land he had conquered.

War with the Protestant Netherlands. Louis, a few years later, decided to make war on Holland, since he considered that country's interference the cause of his loss of the Spanish Netherlands. He led an army of one hundred thousand men across the Rhine and conquered territory in the south of Holland. Deserted by her allies the cause of the Dutch Republic seemed lost, when William of Orange, a descendant of William the Silent, cut the dikes and flooded the country. The progress of the French army was halted. The Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, Leopold I, joined the Dutch. For several years the war continued on land and sea, in the Netherlands and along the Rhine. Spain and England joined Austria and Holland.

Treaty of Nimeguen. In 1678 a treaty was signed at Nimeguen (nĭm'ā-gĕn) in Holland. The Dutch Republic retained all of its territory, but Spain ceded to France the province of French Comté, south of Alsace. France was gradually reaching what her King and statesmen considered to be her natural boundary, the Rhine, since it was the river that separated Gaul from Germany during the time of the Cæsars.

Increasing Taxation. For ten years after the treaty, while there was no general war in Europe, the French armies ravaged the Palatinate (pā-lăt'ĭ-năt), a German state along the Rhine and a part of the Empire. Louis seized the free city of Strassburg and other cities on the banks of that river. He claimed cities and provinces in Germany, southern France, and Italy on the most flimsy pretexts. He bombarded Genoa and forced it to submit to his autocratic will. Try as he might, because of the militarism of Louis, Colbert was unable to keep down expenses. He was forced to burden the people with increasing taxes, year after year. In 1683 he died, hated and despised by the French, and was buried at night to prevent a riot.

Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, 1685. Shortly after the death of Colbert, Louis XIV weakened the financial and industrial prosperity of his country by revoking the Edict of

Nantes. This revocation deprived the Huguenots of their right to worship in public. All who refused to accept Catholicism were outlawed. Dragoons (soldiers) were quartered in Protestant families and given permission to annoy and persecute them in every way. Rather than submit to this treatment many Huguenots gave up their faith, but far more fled to England, Holland, and Prussia. Some fled to America and settled in the Carolinas and other English colonies, where they and their descendants were to play an important part in the growth of our great Republic.

The emigration of the Huguenots was a serious blow to France, for they had been important manufacturers, traders, and bankers. "As rich as a Huguenot" was a proverb in France; but now their wealth and industrial skill were carried to other countries, all of which were rivals of France. Intolerant, autocratic Louis XIV considered it his duty to control the religious beliefs of his subjects. That those subjects thought otherwise led to western migration and colonization. Ever westward has been this migration, since the wanderings of the old Hellenic, Italic, and Gothic tribes thousands of years ago.

War of the Palatinate 1688-1697. Three years after the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, Louis invaded the Palatinate, determined to crush a European coalition which had been formed against him by William of Orange, now King of England. The armies of France overran the Palatinate, but Louis was unable to hold his conquests and ordered the country to be laid waste. Thousands of German peasants were rendered homeless. This war, known in European history as the War of the Palatinate, spread to America where English and French colonists fought in what we in American history call King William's War. This conflict was closed in 1697, by the Treaty of Ryswick. There was little additional territory gained or lost by either side, but the balance of power had been maintained.

The Palatinate. Since the close of his war with the Protestant Netherlands, Louis had been persecuting the Protestant Germans in the Palatinate. They had suffered from the Thirty Years' War and the wars of Louis XIV, especially this last one. Refugees wandered along the Rhineland seeking

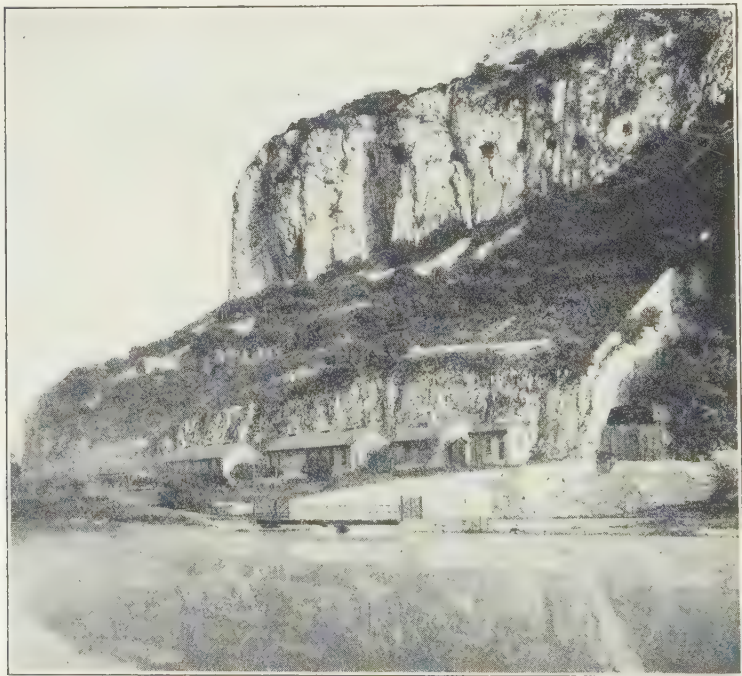
homes in hovels and caves. Those who were fortunate enough to retain roofs over their heads saw little prospect for the future. This was the condition of affairs when they received an invitation from an Englishman, William Penn, to come to America.

Penn's Invitation. Penn had received from his King a large tract of land in America, which was called Pennsylvania. He desired colonists and promised these people religious toleration, freedom from political persecutions, and an opportunity to gain a good living in the New World. He and his agents circulated pamphlets among the people of the Palatinate. The result was that thousands of those Germans came to Pennsylvania, where they were called Pennsylvania Dutch. Not that they were Dutch, but probably because when asked their nationality they said "Deutsch" (doich), the word for German in their language. Thus once again absolutism, this time with the help of the printing press, aided colonization. The persecuted Germans from the Rhineland joined the French Huguenots and the English Puritans and Quakers. There was a new nation being formed that had every reason to hate despotism. Thus the seeds of American democracy were planted by European autocracy.

War of the Spanish Succession, 1701-1714. In 1700 Charles II, King of Spain, died. He had no children and no brothers to succeed him as king. Spain had vast possessions in Europe and America. Who would inherit those dominions was the question asked by almost every European ruler. Charles had two sisters, one the wife of Louis XIV, the other the wife of the Emperor. Both monarchs were anxious to gain control of Spain. When it was learned that Charles had left his crown to Philip of Anjou, a grandson of Louis XIV, Austria was angered and the other European powers were alarmed. The union of France and Spain would upset the balance of power. No single nation could stand against such a coalition. Louis knew that if he accepted the conditions of the will France would have to fight another great war. His ambition was too great, however, to consider the welfare of France. Louis presented his grandson before the court of Versailles and pronounced him King of Spain. "There are no longer any Pyrenees," he is reported to have boasted.

England, Holland, and Austria united against France and Spain. Once again in America French colonists fought English colonists, in what is known in our history as Queen Anne's War. Anne had succeeded to the throne of England in 1702 and was ruling during the greater part of this war. For twelve years the war continued. But the French leaders were no match for those two great generals, Prince Eugene of Savoy, fighting for Austria, and John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, considered one of the ablest commanders that England ever produced. Louis was forced to give in and a peace conference met at Utrecht, Holland, in 1713.

Treaty of Utrecht, 1713. According to the terms of the Treaty of Utrecht, Philip V was acknowledged as King of Spain and all her colonies on condition that Spain and France



GIBRALTAR

It guards the entrance to the Mediterranean and is still held by Great Britain.

should never be united under one person. Austria was given the Spanish Netherlands, and from then until the time of Napoleon these were known as the Austrian Netherlands. In Italy, Austria also received the Spanish possessions of Sardinia, Milan, and Naples. The last two she retained until 1866, when the Italians, fighting for the unification of Italy under their Sardinian King, drove the Austrian forces out. From Spain, England received the island of Minorca, and the rock of Gibraltar which commands the entrance to the Mediterranean Sea. Queen Anne also received for one of her trading companies the right to carry and sell slaves to the Spanish West Indies. France was forced to cede Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and the Hudson Bay region to England. Louis XIV realized his mistakes too late.

Death of Louis XIV. The Grand Monarch lived but two years after the Treaty of Utrecht. He had outlived both his son and his grandson, and the heir to the throne was his great-grandson, just five years of age. On his deathbed Louis XIV turned to the child who was to rule as Louis XV and said: "Try to keep peace with your neighbors. I have been too fond of war; do not imitate me in that, nor in my too great expenditures." Though Louis XV ruled for sixty years, he never caught the significance of Louis XIV's dying words. All his life he remained an autocratic Bourbon.

We now turn to the story of absolutism in England during these same years that it had developed and flowered in France.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Name six great inventions from prehistoric times to the seventeenth century, and explain how they influenced world progress.
2. What part did Philip II play in the history of Holland? Of England? Of France?
3. In what respect were the common people better off during the Age of Absolutism than they were under Feudalism?
4. What were the motives that prompted colonization? What facts were back of these motives?
5. The Era of Enlightenment was an age of centralization. Show how this took place in England, France, Spain, and Austria, and how it affected absolutism.

6. Show the influence the following men had on American colonization: Henry IV, Richelieu, Louis XIV.
7. How did the following events affect American history: Revocation of the Edict of Nantes? War of the Palatinate? Treaty of Utrecht?
8. In what way did the people's representatives contribute towards autocracy during the reign of Henry IV?
9. In what way did Richelieu's method of trying political offenders compare with the English Bill of Attainder? In what way did it differ from the English Habeas Corpus?

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Report on some of the following topics in Robinson's *Readings*, Vol. II, Chapter XXIX: (1) Activity of the Jesuits in Germany before the Thirty Years' War; (2) English view of that war; (3) Bohemian troubles and Protestant Revolution in Prague; (4) Queen Elizabeth of Bohemia and the letter to her father, James I of England; (5) Intervention of Gustavus Adolphus; (6) Treaty of Westphalia.

II. Chapter XXXI of the same book gives excellent accounts of the work of Richelieu, Mazarin, and Colbert; contrast the common lot in France with the court of Louis XIV; and give the ten articles of the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes.

III. An account of Alexandre Dumas' *Three Musketeers*, by anyone who has read the story or seen the photoplay, or by some one assigned to read a synopsis of it, will be interesting. It depicts Richelieu, Louis XIII, Anne of Austria, and the secret service system.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

LODGE	<i>Richelieu</i>	Macmillan
MACDONALD	<i>History of France</i> , Vol. II	Macmillan
ADAMS	<i>Growth of the French Nation</i>	Macmillan

CHAPTER XXIV

ABSOLUTISM IN ENGLAND

James I, King of England, 1603-1625. In 1603 Queen Elizabeth died; and as she had never married, the nearest heir to the throne was James VI of Scotland. By order of the English Parliament he was proclaimed King of England as James I. The two countries were thus united under one

King, but Scotland retained its own Parliament and made its own laws until the early part of the next century.

Absolutism in England. Feudalism in England ended with the War of the Roses (Chapter XVIII) and the crowning of Henry Tudor on Bosworth Field. That event also marks the beginning of absolutism in the British Isles. The Tudors were all autocratic rulers. They showed evidences of their belief in the theory of Divine Right. They seldom called Parliament, and when they did they usually controlled its actions. That body under Edward I (Chapter XVIII) had been given the sole power to tax the people, and to legislate in other ways. The Tudors often infringed on those rights, but they were shrewd enough not to carry their autocracy too far. An illustration of this is found in the reign of Elizabeth.

Monopolies. We have already noticed how she granted monopolies to her favorites, and shared in the profits. The situation grew so bad that a few men controlled the prices of practically all the necessities of life. The profiteers asked such high prices that the people began to object strenuously, and Parliament asked the Queen to abolish the monopolies. Elizabeth resented this, but when she saw the attitude of her people she granted the request and thanked them for their advice. The Tudors were absolute monarchs, but they were popular with their subjects, especially with the middle class. Under their strong rule England prospered and order replaced the old feudal disturbances.

The Object of Stuart Absolutism. It was during the reigns of James I and his son Charles that absolutism and the theory of Divine Right reached their highest point. The accession of the house of Stuart in England marked the beginning of a twofold conflict within that country: first, the attempt of the Kings to destroy the rights of Parliament; and second, the attempt to force their subjects to accept the doctrines of the Anglican Church—corresponding to the Episcopal Church in this country.

The Puritans. As a child James I had been forced to sign the order which made Presbyterianism the state religion of Scotland, but he himself remained an Episcopalian. So in 1603 he found himself King of a religiously divided realm.

England was Anglican, Ireland was Catholic, and Scotland was Presbyterian. There was, however, an ever growing group of English people who were dissatisfied with the Anglican form of worship. They said it resembled the Roman Catholic Church in too many of its forms, and they desired to "purify" it. For this reason they were called Puritans. Some of the Puritan ministers presented James with a petition, asking that he permit them to preach without wearing the surplice (white gown) and to do away with certain other forms in the Anglican Church. The next year (1604) the King called a conference at Hampton Court to consider the petition.

Hampton Court Conference, 1604. At this conference James showed his true nature. He refused to allow the members to discuss the subject. Instead, he tried to impress them with his own learning. He quoted Latin and he quoted Greek; for, despite his lack of tact and common sense, he had been well educated. The Duke of Sully dubbed him "the wisest fool in Christendom." He called the ten men rebels who presented the petition, and had them put in prison. It was at this conference that the King ordered a revised translation of the Bible to be prepared. Seven years later the work was completed, and we know it today as the King James Version. It is still used by nearly all Protestant English-speaking people, although later translations have been made. There were many people in England who resented the despotic attitude of James I in his treatment of the Puritan petitioners. He was to alienate many more of his subjects in the next few years.

James I and the Divine Right of Kings. In 1609 this physical weakling, James Stuart, appeared before Parliament to convince that body of his importance. He made a speech in which he said: "The state of monarchy is the supremest thing upon earth; for kings are not only God's lieutenants upon earth, and sit upon God's throne, but even by God himself they are called gods. . . . Kings make and unmake their subjects, they have power of resisting and casting down, of life and death, judges over all their subjects and in all causes, and yet accountable to none but God only." Parliament must have listened with astonishment to this man, who six years before had been proclaimed King by their command. But

unashamed, he continued: "As it is atheism and blasphemy to dispute what God can do, so it is presumption and high contempt in a subject to dispute what a king can do, or say that a king cannot do this or that." No Tudor had ever gone this far, and they were Englishmen. Parliament resented this from a Stuart, one whom they regarded as a foreigner. They prepared for a struggle. The mistake made by the Estates General of France, in letting power slip through its fingers at the time of Henry IV, was not to be repeated by the English Parliament. In the meantime other events were taking place.

The Virginia Company, 1606. In 1606 a group of London merchants organized a stock company, called the London Company. At the same time merchants in Plymouth organized the Plymouth Company. They received charters which made their corporations legal, and were given permission to colonize in America. The London Company was to settle, approximately, the territory between what is now South Carolina and Maryland; the Plymouth organization, between northern New Jersey and Maine. The land between was not to be settled by either. These two corporations combined formed what was called the Virginia Company. The chief object of the shareholders was to make money. They themselves, in most cases, did not wish to go to America. But they desired to send colonists over to search for gold, to establish manufactures, to cut timber; and later, to cultivate the soil and raise hemp, flax, and tobacco. These products were to be shipped back to England, sold, and the profits divided among the shareholders. The officials of the company were allowed to coin money, raise revenue, and make the laws for their colonists; but only the Anglican religion was to be tolerated. The King was to have the final say in everything.

Jamestown, 1607. This was the beginning of English colonization in America. In the spring of 1607 three small ships, under the direction of the London Company, entered Chesapeake Bay. A little over one hundred anxious men were lined up along the decks, looking for a place to settle. Their vessels had been four months crossing the Atlantic, in the dead of winter. They sailed up one of the rivers that emptied

into the bay and called it the James, in honor of their King. After sailing about thirty miles the colonists disembarked. Their leaders, with twelve laborers, a barber, a blacksmith, a mason, a few carpenters, and about fifty "gentlemen" (men not used to work), erected a few tents and cabins. Beneath a canvas awning religious services were held, according to the established Church of England. This was the beginning of Jamestown, the first permanent English colony in America. Financially the London Company was a failure, but before they realized that fact they had invested nearly a half million dollars in aiding colonists to develop Virginia. The further story of that company, and of the struggle of those early settlers, will be told in a later chapter.

Independents or Separatists. While the London Company was settling Virginia, there were people preparing to leave England for other than economic reasons. After the Puritan Petition, James, in speaking of these people, said: "I will make them conform or I will harry them out of the land, or else do worse." They did not conform. Instead, they "separated" from the Anglican Church and set up independent churches. For this reason they were called Separatists or Independents. These names distinguished them from that other group of Puritans who remained in the established church and tried to "purify" it.

Scrooby. James did everything within his power to offset this movement. The Independents were thrown into prisons, half starved, and flogged, but their membership only increased. To the north of London, in the little village of Scrooby, an Independent church was established. The most influential members of the community were the minister, John Robinson, and the village postmaster, William Brewster (brōō'ster). Their congregation was pretty well organized before the agents of King James discovered and reported it.

Such a thing was easily possible in England at that time. The roads were in poor condition, travel was mostly on horseback, the postal system established under Elizabeth was uncertain. There were few coaches during the Stuart period. In London, chairs (sedans) carried on poles by two men took the place of the trolleys and taxicabs of our day. With such means of communication the church at Scrooby was safe for

quite a while, but finally they, too, became victims of Stuart despotism.

The Puritans in Holland. The Scrooby Puritans could not go to America, because the King would not consent. So they decided to go to Holland, where at that time religious toleration was practiced. They were forced to leave Scrooby secretly, in small groups or alone. By 1609 most of the congregation had arrived at Leyden, famous for its heroic resistance to the Spanish troops of Philip II. The little congregation remained in Holland for eleven years. But they did not feel at home. The Dutch language and customs were too different from their own. The men of Scrooby were mostly farmers, while Holland was a manufacturing and commercial country, with skilled workmen and traders. So the Puritans longed to go where they could rear their children according to English customs and where the men could till the soil.

The Pilgrims. How they left Holland, returned to England, and set sail for America, where they were to work as bonded slaves for the London Company during the next seven



DEPARTURE OF THE PILGRIMS FROM HOLLAND

Late in July, 1620, the advance guard left Delft Haven for Plymouth, England, in an unseaworthy ship called the "Speedwell."

years, is all told by William Bradford. Bradford was only a boy when one night he made his escape from Scrooby and went to Leyden. He became Governor of the little band that landed on Plymouth Rock. The diary which he kept has only lately been found. Bradford's description can be found in almost any library, under the title "A History of Plimoth Plantation." James had harried Scrooby Separatists out of the land, and because of their wanderings they are known as Pilgrims.

England and Ireland. The absolutism of James and his quarrel with Parliament were affecting the people of another country—Ireland. During Queen Elizabeth's time the Irish chiefs rebelled, whereupon English armies invaded the country and conquered the people. So cruel was the war that Elizabeth said there would be nothing but ashes and dead bodies for her to rule over. The region which had been so devastated was the province of Ulster, in the northern part of the island. This territory was seized by the English government and the original owners dispossessed. King James granted portions of the land to settlers from Scotland and England. By this means Protestantism gained a foothold in Catholic Ireland, and religion has been a source of trouble in that country ever since.

Death of James I. When Parliament refused to grant James money until he made certain reforms in the government, the King adjourned both Houses and ruled alone for seven years. By illegal methods and with the aid of favorites he secured enough money to support his army in Ireland. When toward the close of his reign the King again called Parliament, their fighting blood was stirred. They fined and imprisoned one of the King's favorites, Lord Bacon, for bribery. James was able to get his friend out of this difficulty, but he was fully aware that his subjects were willing to dispute "what a king can do or say." Four years later (1625) he died and was succeeded by his son Charles I.

Charles I, 1625-1649. Concerning absolutism and Divine Right, Charles I was in complete harmony with his father. He retained his father's favorite, the Duke of Buckingham, as his own adviser. He married a French Catholic princess, Henrietta Maria, which displeased his Protestant subjects.

James I had persecuted the Catholics; and the laws against them were still in force. In 1632 Charles granted Lord Baltimore a tract of land in America, where the people of the Queen's faith could worship unmolested. Baltimore called his colony Maryland, after Henrietta Maria.

The Puritan Exodus. The Plymouth Company, which had been organized at the same time as the London Company, proved a failure. It was later reorganized and called the Council for New England. It divided its lands among its own stockholders, and several small fishing settlements were made in what is now Salem and Boston, in the State of Massachusetts. But Charles I early in his reign gave impetus to a more formidable settlement. The Puritans who remained in the Anglican Church, and abided by its rites and laws but fought for reforms, were bitterly opposed by Charles. So in 1629 a group of merchants and country gentlemen, mostly Puritans, received from the Council for New England a land patent (right to hold land). Then they secured a royal charter from Charles permitting them to settle between a line three miles north of the Merrimac River and a line three miles south of Massachusetts Bay and the Charles River, and extending westward to the South Sea (Pacific). They were to abide by the laws of England. In 1630 a thousand emigrants left England, taking their charter and government with them. The new colonists were joined by the settlers in Boston and Salem, and within ten years fifteen thousand people had established a Puritan colony in the New World.

Intolerance of the Age. The spirit of the age is shown by a survey of the following events. Under Louis XIV, Protestants in France and Germany settled in America because they were persecuted by a Catholic King. In England, Catholics and Independents went to America because they were persecuted by a Protestant King. In Massachusetts, the Puritans persecuted those who refused to accept their faith.

Oliver Cromwell. It is claimed by some historians that among those Puritans who embarked for America at a later date there was a young man by the name of Oliver Cromwell, but that Charles forced him to come ashore. If this is true

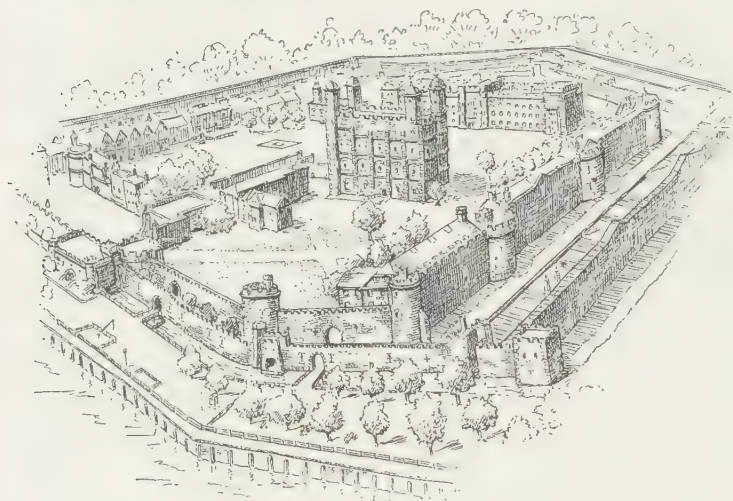


then Charles I sealed his own doom. He was about to enter into a struggle with Parliament that was to end in the great Puritan Revolution—and the leading spirit of that movement was to be Cromwell, considered by many authorities the greatest Englishman of the seventeenth century. To that struggle between King and Parliament we now turn our attention.

King vs. Parliament. During the first three years of his reign, Charles called and dismissed Parliament on two different occasions. In order to meet his own personal needs, and to carry on several petty wars with Spain and France, he asked that body for money. At the first meeting Parliament refused to authorize any taxes until the King consented to certain reforms. Charles grew angry and dismissed them. When he convened them the second time the House of Commons, under the leadership of Sir John Eliot, drew up articles of impeachment against the Duke of Buckingham for mismanagement of governmental affairs. To save his favorite Charles dissolved Parliament for a second time, and endeavored to raise money by illegal taxation and forced loans. These tactics on the part of the King only made matters worse for him. Eliot and the other leaders in Parliament refused to lend Charles the money for which he asked. They were thrown into prison, but their persecution only gained for Charles more enemies. Unable to raise enough money to carry on the government, the King in 1628 was forced to call a new Parliament. The men Charles had imprisoned were enthusiastically elected to the House of Commons.

The Petition of Right, 1628. One of the first acts of this Parliament was to draw up a Petition of Right and present it to Charles. This document, soon to become a law of the land, was a severe criticism of the King's illegal methods of raising money. It declared: first, that no one should be compelled to supply the King with money except by order of Act of Parliament; second, that neither soldiers nor sailors should be quartered in private homes; third, that no one should be imprisoned or punished without due process of law. The Petition was presented to the King for his signature. Once more the English people had dared to question

the authority of an autocratic Stuart king. This document, next to Magna Carta, is the most notable one in English constitutional history. It reasserted many of the rights wrung from King John at Runnymede. Charles was furious, but he needed money and therefore signed the Petition. It was now law and Parliament voted the King supplies.



THE TOWER OF LONDON

Since its origin under William the Conqueror, the Tower of London has been successively royal residence, fortress, and prison. Grim and dignified, its story is indissolubly one with English history. No sovereign has lived there since James I, however, and today the Tower is used principally as an armory and a museum.

Autocracy, 1629-1640. But the English people were about to learn that the plighted word of Charles I was worthless. He had no sooner received Parliament's permission to tax his subjects than he began to violate every clause in the Petition of Right. He granted monopolies, which had been forbidden during the time of Queen Elizabeth. He dismissed Parliament and ruled alone for the next eleven years. Sir John Eliot was cast into the Tower of London and died a few years later, a martyr and an example for this and later struggles in the cause of liberty.

Strafford and Laud. Charles was aided in his despotic rule by two ministers, the Earl of Strafford (strä'f'ërd) and Bishop Laud. Strafford organized courts (known as Star Chamber Courts) which fined and imprisoned men, without jury trial, who failed to pay illegal taxes or forced loans. Laud, in other courts (known as High Commission Courts), tried and meted out severe punishments to all who did not conform to the Anglican Church. To escape the persecutions of Laud about twenty thousand Puritans fled to Massachusetts during the decade in which he held power (1630-1640).

John Hampden and Ship Money, 1637. But despite the tyranny of Charles, and the aid of his two puppets, he was finding it more difficult as time went on to collect money. He finally decided to declare war on Holland, and in order to equip a navy he revived the old custom of collecting "ship money." This tax had been levied on the people in the coast towns during the past, whenever there was danger from an invasion. It provided that the maritime counties should furnish ships and money for defense, on the ground that they were specially in danger. Charles I taxed not only the people along the coast, but also those of the inland cities as well. Most people paid this tax, reluctantly. But there was a Buckinghamshire (bük'ing äm-shër) squire, John Hampden, who refused to pay. Hampden was taxed twenty shillings, and he could easily have paid it, but there was a principle at stake.

The Principle at Stake. The King had levied this tax without the consent of Parliament. Parliament, by the terms of Magna Carta and the Petition of Right, claimed the sole authority to levy taxes. If John Hampden paid the twenty shillings he would be acknowledging the King's right to tax without the consent of Parliament. If he refused to pay he was only abiding by the right of Parliament alone to tax him. On his refusal, Hampden was imprisoned, tried by the King's judges, and convicted, but he became a popular hero. Had the English people failed to stand by John Hampden at this time, they would have lost every semblance of representative government. But the English people were aroused by the King's despotic acts—the storm was gathering.

The Scotch Covenanters. Archbishop Laud, about the same time that the Hampden case was stirring England, tried to force Anglicanism upon Scotland. The Scotch Presbyterians rose in revolt. They signed a Covenant (agreement) binding themselves to resist the autocratic plans of the English King. The troops that Charles sent to Scotland to enforce the order refused to fight. The Covenanters marched across the English border. The King had no money to defend the country. His army still refused to fight.

The Long Parliament, 1640-1660. There was but one thing to do; and, much as he disliked to do it, Charles I called Parliament. It met in 1640 and was not finally dissolved until 1660. For that reason it has been called the Long Parliament. It had many scores to settle with Charles. John Pym (pím), as one of the leaders in the House of Commons, openly asserted the principle for which John Hampden had fought—that the Commons and not the king was the supreme authority in the land. This declaration was followed by the impeachment and execution of Strafford and Laud. An act was passed, and the King forced to sign it, whereby Parliament could not be dissolved without its own consent; and, further, it should be called together at least once in every three years. Ship money was declared illegal, and the Courts of Star Chamber and High Commission were abolished. Autocracy was dealt a stunning blow.

The Religious Question in Parliament. Having forced the King to sign these reform measures, Parliament might have adjourned, but the Petition of Right had taught them a lesson—Charles I could not be trusted. There was another reason for their remaining at their posts, and that was a religious question which now came to the fore. The House of Commons contained many Presbyterians, who wished to make that faith the established religion of England. This was opposed by the Puritans, under Cromwell, who desired that all Protestant faiths should enjoy religious toleration.

The King's Attempt to Arrest the Five Members. While the Commons was divided on this question, and in dispute over several other affairs, the King considered it an opportune time to strike and regain his autocratic powers. He ordered the lower House to arrest five of its leading members,

among whom were Pym and Hampden. These men were to be handed over to the King for trial. The Commons quickly united, and refused to comply with the request. The next day the King went to Westminster, stationed his troops on the outside, and entered the House of Commons. He marched up to the Speaker's chair and looked over the assembly, but the five members were not in the House. They had been warned and had fled to London. Charles turned to the Speaker and asked where they were. The reply of Speaker Lenthall has become famous. Kneeling before the King, as in reverence, he said: "I have neither eyes to see nor tongue



From a painting by Solomon J. Solomon

CHARLES I

The King on his way to arrest five members of the House.

to speak in this place but as the House is pleased to direct me." Charles left the House, reminded by members on every side of their privilege to debate all questions without royal interference. The King now decided to use military force to subdue Parliament, and civil war began in England.

"Cavaliers" and "Roundheads." Charles I rallied the royal forces at Nottingham, north of London. The nobility, as well as the poorer and less progressive people in the northern and western part of England, stood by the King. The lesser gentry, and the townsmen in the southern and eastern part of the country, including London, sided with Parliament. The Royalists were called "Cavaliers" while the Parliamentary troops were dubbed "Roundheads" because they cut their hair short in contrast to the long flowing locks of the Cavaliers.

The "Ironsides." The King's forces were well organized and commanded by Prince Rupert (rōō'pert), nephew of Charles I. The army of Parliament was led by the Earl of Essex. In the beginning of the war the disciplined troops of the King defeated the undisciplined Roundheads on all sides. The King marched on London, but about that time the remarkable career of Oliver Cromwell began. He had served in Parliament with his cousin John Hampden, and when the war broke out he raised a company from his own community and was made a captain in the Parliamentary forces. Later he organized, drilled, and disciplined a regiment of "God-fearing," man-fearless men, who went into battle praying and singing psalms. They were known as Cromwell's "Ironsides," and soon gained the reputation of being the best fighting troops in all England.

The "New Model." Cromwell, who until he was past forty years of age had had practically no military experience, was in a few short years recognized as the greatest leader among the Roundheads. Parliament placed Fairfax and Cromwell in charge of the army; and they organized all the troops, most of whom were Puritans, on the same plan as the Ironsides. This organization was called the "New Model." Thus the only man who was more than a match for Prince Rupert in battle was soon to humble a king on the fields of Marston Moor and Naseby (nāz'bī).

The Allies. As both sides became hard pressed they endeavored to enlist aid. Charles, with little success, tried to persuade the Irish and several European rulers to help him. Parliament made an agreement with the Scotch that it would establish Presbyterianism in England, and on that condition Scottish troops joined in the conflict.

Marston Moor (1644) and Naseby (1645). In 1644 the armies of Cromwell and Prince Rupert met at Marston Moor, in the north of England. For nearly a whole day the opposing armies stood facing one another, separated by a long ditch. Towards evening the Parliamentary army moved forward to attack. Cromwell's Ironsides, supported by Scotch troops, won the day. It was the first great victory for the Roundheads. The next year the King's army was routed at Naseby, and Charles fled to Scotland where he gave himself up to the Scots. He was handed over to the English Parliament, a prisoner. The civil war was practically over. Pym and Hampden were dead, the last named having been killed in the war. Cromwell, the idol of the army, emerged from the conflict the undisputed leader of the country.

Pride's Purge, 1648. Many of the members in the House of Commons were Presbyterians, and they wished to force their faith on the English people just as Episcopalianism had been forced on the nation by the King. To this the Puritans in the House objected. In the meantime Charles I had been secretly negotiating with the Scotch and with foreign countries, and had even promised the Presbyterians to make their church supreme in England. The King's allies, the Scotch, marched into England, but were quickly subdued. The army desired to bring the King to trial for treason, but neither the House of Lords nor the Presbyterians in the Commons would agree. Colonel Pride, representing the army, was sent to Westminster (wĕst'mĭn-ster) with a few troopers. He drove all the members opposed to the trial of Charles I out of Parliament. This is known as "Pride's Purge."

Execution of Charles I, 1649. All that remained of the original Parliament was a group of some fifty Independents or Puritans. The real government, however, was the army; and the "Rump" Parliament remained merely at the pleasure of Cromwell's troops. The Rump appointed a court of jus-

tice, consisting of over one hundred men, to try the King for treason. On January 20, 1649, Charles I was brought to trial. He was pronounced a "traitor, tyrant, murderer, and public enemy," and condemned to die. Ten days later Charles Stuart was beheaded in London, in front of his palace of Whitehall. It is said that the same evening Oliver Cromwell went secretly to view the dead body. As he looked at the corpse he shook his head and sighed, "cruel necessity!"

The Commonwealth, 1649-1653. On the same day that Charles was beheaded the Rump Parliament met and abolished the House of Lords and the office of king. England was to be a republic governed by a Council of State. The poet John Milton served on this council as secretary for foreign affairs. The troubles that faced the Commonwealth, as the English government was now called, were many.

Trouble with Ireland and Scotland. Both Ireland and Scotland proclaimed Prince Charles, son of the executed ruler, as King. Cromwell subdued Ireland, and with such cruelty that it has ever since remained a dark blot on his otherwise excellent record. Returning from Ireland, he entered Scotland and defeated the Scotch in two battles. Prince Charles fled to France.

Cavalier Exodus to Virginia. It was during this period of the Commonwealth that many Royalists emigrated to Virginia. Among them were John Washington, great-grandfather of George Washington, and the ancestors of James Madison, John Marshall, and James Monroe. So many went to America at this time that the movement has been called the Cavalier exodus, in contrast with the great migration to Massachusetts under Charles known as the Puritan exodus.

End of the Commonwealth, 1653. During Cromwell's absence in Scotland and Ireland the Rump Parliament became very unpopular, because of its arbitrary rule. Public opinion forced it to summon a new Parliament of four hundred members. But the bill providing for this also stated that the present House was to remain and have the right to reject the newly elected members. The Rump feared that Cromwell, with the aid of the army, was trying to have himself declared King. Cromwell felt that this last act of Parliament was only an effort to keep power in the hands of the present



ENGLAND UNDER THE COMMONWEALTH

members. Being a man of action, Cromwell walked into the House of Commons where they were debating the bill. After listening to their arguments a few minutes he jumped up and said, "You are no Parliament! I say you are no Parliament." With that he called in his musketeers, whom he had stationed at the door, dragged the speaker from the chair, ordered everyone out of the building, and then locked the door and stuck the key in his pocket.



CROMWELL DISSOLVES PARLIAMENT

The Protectorate, 1653-1660. Cromwell ordered the election of a new Parliament, which sat but a few months and then resigned, handing all its power over to him. A constitution called the "Instrument of Government" was now drawn up by a council of army officers. This Instrument was the first written constitution of modern times. It provided for a Parliament composed of a single House, for a Council of State, and for a chief executive called "Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland." Cromwell was appointed Lord Protector for life.

Roosevelt's Estimate of Cromwell's Absolutism. For the next six years Oliver Cromwell ruled England as a dictator. His power was practically unlimited, as he dissolved Parliament at will. His rule was as personal as that of any Tudor or Stuart before him. But, as Roosevelt says in his life of Cromwell, "There was this tremendous and far reaching difference, that whereas the Stuart kings clung to absolute power for the sake of rewarding favorites, and of carrying

out policies that were hostile to the honor and interest of England, Cromwell seized it with the sincere purpose of exalting the moral law at home and increasing the honor of England abroad. Moreover, he was in fact what no Stuart was in anything but name, a 'king among men.'"

His Toleration of the Quakers. At home Cromwell permitted religious toleration of all Protestant faiths not opposed to the government. The Quakers, a new sect, were persecuted in America and in many parts of England, but in Cromwell they found a friend.

Cromwell vs. Holland and Spain. During the Protectorate the Dutch were the greatest naval and commercial power in Europe. About two years before Cromwell was made Protector, the Commonwealth passed the "Navigation Act." This act forbade all goods to come into or go out of England or its colonies except in English ships. This was aimed at the Dutch carrying trade. Later, when Royalists who were plotting against the Protectorate were given a refuge in Holland, Cromwell built the strongest navy that England ever had up to that time and declared war. In 1653 Admiral Blake defeated the Dutch so completely that they pledged themselves to salute the English flag whenever they saw it on any sea. In a short war against Spain, Cromwell seized Jamaica in the West Indies, which England still retains.

Death of Cromwell. Cromwell died in 1658 and was succeeded for a short time by his son Richard, who was unable to control the government. Under the Protectorate the country had been divided into military districts, and over each district a major general wielded martial law. The people were tired of this military government, and in 1660 Charles II was restored to the English throne.

The Restoration—Charles II, 1660-1685. Charles II swore to uphold the provisions of Magna Carta and the Petition of Right. The first Parliament pardoned all who had taken part in the revolt against Charles I except those who had condemned him to death. Of these regicides thirteen were executed and seventeen imprisoned for life. Most of the other regicides (rěj'ĩ-sĩdz) had either died or escaped to America. William Goffe and Edward Halley lived for a long while in Connecticut, and later were sheltered in the

home of a Massachusetts clergyman until they died. Another of these regicides is made to play a spectacular part in the "Gray Champion," a story related in Hawthorne's *Twice Told Tales*. The dead bodies of Cromwell and Pride were removed from Westminster Abbey, hanged, and then buried at the foot of the gallows. The colony of Virginia, for its loyalty to the Stuarts, was made a dominion; and the old seal of the Virginia Company was placed on the royal shield with the arms of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

England under Charles II. The return of Charles II removed the stern religious order that had controlled men's lives during the Puritan régime. Under the irresponsible, pleasure-loving "Merry Monarch" people went to the other extreme. Public morality reached a low ebb, and for a time crime was almost unchecked.

Habeas Corpus Act, 1679. In 1679 Parliament passed the Habeas Corpus (hā'bē-ās cōr'pūs) Act. This Act provided that a person held in custody might secure a writ from a judge commanding the custodian to bring the prisoner before the court, to ascertain whether his detention was legal. This went a long way toward checking arbitrary imprisonment.

New Amsterdam Becomes New York, 1664. Charles II renewed the war with Holland, and in 1664 the English captured the Dutch colony of New Amsterdam, which they claimed on the ground of John Cabot's voyage of 1497 (Chapter XXII). Charles gave the colony to his brother James, the Duke of York, and the name of the settlement was changed to New York. The conquest was confirmed in a treaty signed by the two countries in 1667.

James II, 1685-1688. Charles II died in 1685, and his brother came to the throne as James II. His reign was destined to be short. Charles, who had spent much of his time in exile at the court of Louis XIV, was a Catholic at heart, although outwardly conforming to the Church of England. James II was an avowed Catholic. Little had he learned from the great Puritan Revolution. He determined to make Catholicism once more the religion of England. Moreover, despite the fate of his father he sought to rule without Parliament. His despotism extended to America. He sent Sir



THE SURRENDER OF NEW AMSTERDAM

The picturesque Governor Stuyvesant, with his wooden leg, heads the procession.

Edmund Andros to the northern colonies to collect all the charters, and for a while those people were the victims of Stuart tyranny. But the spirit of Cromwell still lived, as James II was to find out.

William and Mary, 1688. Mary, the older daughter of James II, was a Protestant and had married William of Orange, an enemy of Louis XIV. As long as England could look forward to Mary as the successor of her father, Parliament was willing to tolerate James. But when his second wife, a Catholic, gave birth to a boy, and every indication seemed to point to this heir being a Catholic, Parliament dispatched messengers to Holland offering the throne to William and Mary. James, with a few loyal followers, prepared to resist. But when William landed in England with fourteen thousand troops the English army and people deserted James. His own daughter Anne forsook him and joined her sister Mary. The Queen fled to France and King James was allowed to join her.

Bill of Rights, 1688. Parliament now drew up the third great document of England's constitutional history, the Bill of Rights. It forbade any king to suspend or violate the laws of Parliament, or to levy taxes without its consent. Every subject was to enjoy the right of petition and of trial by jury. It also decreed that every English sovereign in the future was to be a Protestant. William and Mary signed the Bill of Rights, and the "Glorious Revolution" of 1688 was over.

Toleration Act. The Toleration Act, passed shortly after the Bill of Rights, gave dissenters (those Protestants who did not belong to the Church of England) the right to worship in public, but forbade them to hold any civil or military office. Catholics were permitted to hold services without government interference, although they were not included in the Act.

Union of England and Scotland, 1707. On the death of William and Mary, Anne, the younger daughter of James II, became Queen in 1702. We have already noticed the War of the Spanish Succession, which took place during her reign. Another important event was the Union of England and Scotland under the name of Great Britain, and the formation of one Parliament for both countries. At that time it was agreed by both governments that Scotland should choose forty-five members to sit in the English House of Commons, and sixteen Scotch nobles to sit in the House of Lords. The established Church and the laws of Scotland were to be maintained in that country. Great Britain now adopted a new flag, the Union Jack, which bore the red cross of St. George and the white cross of St. Andrew, the patron saints of England and Scotland.

Death of Queen Anne, 1714. Queen Anne died in 1714, without heirs, and with her death the Stuart rule in England ended. Much had been done to destroy absolutism in that country during the century that marked the advent of James I. We now cross over to the Continent again, to follow the fortunes of those monarchs known as the Enlightened Despots.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. What was the difference between Tudor and Stuart absolutism?
2. Contrast the absolutism of James I with that of his French contemporary, Henry IV.
3. In what way did Stuart absolutism affect the settlement of America? The history of Ireland?
4. How were the principles involved in the case of John Hampden and ship money similar to those of the Boston Tea Party?
5. Contrast the absolute rule of Cromwell with that of the Stuarts. What effect had Cromwell's government on the history of America?
6. How did the Restoration affect American history? How did the Glorious Revolution affect it?
7. Who were the Scotch-Irish? Why are we interested in them?

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Assign portions of Chapter XXX, Vol. II, of Robinson's *Readings* for a more complete discussion of: (1) Policy of Knox and the Presbyterians; (2) James I and his attitude toward the Divine Right of kings; (3) Petition of Right; (4) Conditions in England which encouraged emigration to America; (5) Personal government of Charles I; (6) Puritan pamphlet attacking the King's courts; (7) Grand Remonstrances; (8) Court of Star Chamber and Court of High Commission; (9) Civil War; (10) Execution of Charles; (11) Commonwealth and Cromwell; (12) Restoration of the Stuarts; (13) Revolution of 1688.

II. Brief reports on the lives of Cromwell and Hampden; on the battles of Marston Moor and Naseby; and on the storming of Drogheda. (See Webster's *Readings*, Chapters 25, 26, 27.)

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

GARDINER	<i>Oliver Cromwell</i>	Goupil
ROOSEVELT	<i>Oliver Cromwell</i>	Scribner
MORRIS	<i>Puritan Revolution</i>	Scribner

CHAPTER XXV

RUSSIAN AND PRUSSIAN ABSOLUTISM

Russia. At the dawn of the seventeenth century Russia was passing through a period of disorder. The constant wars fought for unification under Ivan III and Ivan the Terrible (Chapter XIX) were followed by internal conflicts over the succession. These struggles bore heavily on the agricultural classes, and made the lot of the serfs intolerable. Hard times accompanied by anarchy followed. To add to the distress Sweden and Poland took advantage of the weakened condition of Russia, invaded the country, and endeavored to influence the government. In 1613 an assembly of nobles met at Moscow and elected Michael Romanoff (rô-mă'nôf), one of the assembly, as Tsar (tsär). This was the beginning of a long line of Romanoff rulers in Russian history, which continued until the Revolution of 1917.

Ukraine. In the region just above the Black Sea, watered by the Dnieper, Don, and Volga rivers, is the fertile triangle



RUSSIAN COLONIZATION

New settlers and their hut on the tundra of Siberia.

called the Ukraine (u'krän) (*krai*, a frontier). The great grain fields of the Ukraine (also known as Little Russia) made it an important economic addition to the Russian Empire. The first Ukrainian colonists were the Cossacks, lawless bands of Russian horsemen and mixed Eastern races. Under Alexis, the son of Michael, the Cossacks of the Ukraine acknowledged the sovereignty of the Tsar. They held their land on condition of military service, and were allowed to elect their own chiefs.

Siberia Opened to Russian Colonization. It was the Cossack bandit Yermak (yër-mäk') who conquered certain Tartar tribes east of the Ural Mountains and captured their capital, Siber. The territory known as Siberia, stretching from the Ural Mountains to the Pacific and larger than all of Europe, was thus opened to Russian colonization. The early settlers were hunters and fur traders, but many went in search of gold. Siberia became a haven for runaway serfs and a place of undescribable cruelty for transported criminals who were the victims of a despotic government.

Peter the Great, 1672-1725. Portions of Poland were annexed to Russia during the reign of Alexis, but it remained for his illustrious son Peter the Great to tear Russia from its Oriental traditions. Peter was born in Moscow, in 1672. His mother was the second wife of Alexis, so Peter's right to the throne was second to that of his two half-brothers, children of the first wife of Alexis. Teodor, the eldest son, reigned for only a few years. On his death-bed he ignored his own brother Ivan's claim and named his half-brother Peter as his successor. Civil war followed. Peter



PETER THE GREAT

was supported by the great nobles of his mother's family, while Ivan was supported by his sister, the grand duchess Sophia. The duchess ignored the Oriental custom of seclusion that prevailed among Russian women, and appealed to the strelitz (Tsar's bodyguard). Three days of conflict followed, after which Peter and Ivan were made joint sovereigns of Russia, with Sophia as regent. It was during this period that Peter fell under the influence of European instructors, who taught him western military science, mathematics, and a smattering of the French, German, and English languages.

Early Training. By nature the boy was cruel and brutal, but he was endowed with almost tireless energy. His instructors made it plain to him how backward Russia was in comparison with western civilization, and he longed to know more concerning its armies, navies, sciences, and arts. Lefort (lē-fôr'), a native of Geneva, and a tutor in the royal household, tamed his savage disposition to some extent by organizing a military company along the lines of stern discipline. He compelled the boy to start as a drummer and win the captaincy of the company on merit.

Assumes All Power, 1689. In 1689, at the age of seventeen, Peter demanded the resignation of his sister as regent. Sophia again appealed to the strelitz. Peter, with the aid of forces led by Lefort and Patrick Gordon, a Scotchman, overcame the strelitz and placed Sophia in a convent. Peter entered Moscow in triumph; and although he acknowledged his brother Ivan, he was from now on the undisputed autocrat of Russia.

Russia's Need of Outlets to the Sea. Peter saw that if Russia were to compete with the great commercial and naval powers of the west, it must have an outlet to the sea and a large navy. The only Russian port at that time was Archangel (ärk'än'jël), on the White Sea, and it is icebound nearly the whole year. The Baltic ports were controlled by Sweden, the Black Sea by the Turks. Peter decided to have both. His first move was to capture Azof (ä'zôf) from the Turks. This city was the key to the Black Sea. After two attempts the Russian forces entered Azof, and Russia's first outlet to the sea was established.

Peter Visits the West. Having gained a seaport, the next problem that confronted Peter was to build a navy and train sailors to man his ships. Hitherto he had depended upon shipbuilders from Venice and Holland; but if Russia were to become a world power it could not depend upon foreigners. So in 1697 he ordered a large number of his nobles to visit Holland, Venice, and England. They were to observe and learn all they could of western civilization. He commanded them not to return until they knew something about shipbuilding, and about military and naval tactics. Not satisfied with intrusting this task to his subordinates, Peter left the government in the hands of three nobles, turned his back on oriental civilization, and in disguise accompanied a delegation to Holland.

In Holland and England. For four months Peter worked at the docks of the East India Company in Amsterdam. The laborers with whom he toiled shoulder to shoulder knew him as Baas, or Master Peter. Crossing the English Channel, the Russian monarch was received in England by King William III. Peter remained in England three months, studying the mathematical principles of shipbuilding. Not satisfied with theory alone, he worked at the practical construction of ships. When he left England he took with him a large number of English engineers, shipbuilders, and artisans.

In Vienna. It is said that when the Russian delegates left England the houses which they had occupied were as dirty as pig pens. Bishop Burnet, who visited Peter while in England, described him as a man of very hot temper, brutal in his passion, and a heavy drinker of brandy. No doubt these tales preceded him. Louis XIV of France refused to receive this semi-barbarian, giving as his reason the fact that Peter was traveling in disguise. Peter then visited Vienna, and hoped to go to Venice, but news of an insurrection at home prompted him to leave immediately for Moscow.

Organization of an Army. The trouble at home was caused by an uprising on the part of the strelitz, who upon Ivan's death rose in favor of Sophia. When Peter arrived in Moscow the rebellion had been crushed, but he took fearful revenge. The strelitz, numbering twenty or thirty thousand men, was disbanded. About one thousand of the ringleaders

were put to death. Peter beheaded some of the victims himself, and ordered his nobles to execute others. In place of the old strelitz the Tsar now organized a new army which was administered, trained, and disciplined upon the same plan as the armies of western Europe.

Economic and Political Reform. Reform followed reform as this energetic ruler started to Europeanize Russia. He established a new coinage and a new postal system, and reorganized the police force. He built roads, dug canals, opened mines, and framed a new code of laws. He established schools of medicine and engineering. He introduced sheep breeding, encouraged wool manufactures, and built factories. He protected Russian industries by high tariffs. He abolished the Duma, an assembly of nobles, and created a council of state directly responsible to himself. This last measure was similar to the autocratic system in vogue throughout western Europe.

Social Reforms. The reforms of Peter were not only economic and political, but social as well. He ordered the men to cut off their long beards, and to discard their loose oriental gowns for German costumes. At the gates of Mos-



RUSSIAN COSSACK

A veil of mystery and romance surrounds the history of the Cossacks. Their name originally meant "vagabonds." Bound together nominally for the defense of the frontier against Tartar raids, they furthered their own ends by a roving life of brigandage and looting.

cow he stationed soldiers to trim both beards and gowns. As barbers and tailors they enjoyed their work. Those who refused to part with their whiskers were taxed for wearing them. Peter abolished the oriental fashion of keeping women in seclusion. They were allowed to appear in public without veils, and to accompany their husbands at public functions.

Union of State and Church. Russia, you will recall, had accepted the Greek Catholic faith. The reforms of Peter were stoutly opposed by the clergy. Without much ado, the Tsar brought the Church under the direct control of the State. He placed all authority for Church government in the hands of a Holy Synod, the members of which he appointed. He was now master of Church and State. Absolutism was thoroughly established.

The Swedish Wars. In 1697 Charles XII, a boy of fifteen, became King of Sweden. Three years later Peter the Great, thinking this a good opportunity to acquire ports along the Baltic, joined an alliance already formed between Denmark and Poland for that purpose. But the boy King of Sweden surprised his opponents. With a well organized and highly disciplined army, Charles XII invaded Denmark. He besieged Copenhagen, and within two weeks forced the Danish King to make a separate peace. Before his enemies could unite he led his little army of 8,000 men to the Gulf of Finland. At the battle of Narva, in 1700, he routed and defeated a Russian army of 20,000 men under the Tsar. But one disaster only roused the fighting spirit of Peter the Great. He reorganized his forces with the remark, "The Swedes will teach us how to beat them."

Founding of St. Petersburg, 1703. After his victory over the Russians, Charles XII marched into Poland, defeated the forces of Augustus the Strong who was also Elector of Saxony, and forced that monarch to resign his royal offices. But while the Swedish King was waging war in the south, Peter quietly annexed Swedish territory along the Baltic. On marsh lands and islands at the south of the Neva River he started to build a new city and capital. Thousands of men were employed to drive piles into the soft, muddy surface in order to make a solid foundation. Unsanitary conditions caused disease and thousands died, but their places

were taken by thousands more. Soldiers and peasants were forced to do the work. Nobles were ordered to build magnificent homes in the new city, and thirty thousand peasants were compelled to settle there. As in Venice and Amsterdam, canals were necessary. Regardless of human life and every obstacle, the building of St. Petersburg went on all through Peter's reign. It was his "window looking out on western Europe," as he said. He employed a French architect to build the Peterhof, on the outskirts of the city. Like Versailles it had parks, palaces, fountains, and galleries.

Leningrad. It was hard work to compel people to discard the customs of ages. Throughout the vast and isolated districts the people clung to the old order. Even in Moscow there was a tendency to remain faithful to oriental ideas; but in St. Petersburg the new supplanted the old. During the World War the name of the city was changed from the German Petersburg to the Slav equivalent Petrograd; and since the death of Lenine, the Bolshevik leader, in 1924, it has been called Leningrad.

Battle of Pultowa, 1709. The victorious armies of Charles XII prepared to invade Russia from the south. With 80,000 men the Swedish King met the new army of Peter the Great. Peter refused to fight, but kept retreating and thus drawing the Swedish forces away from their base of supplies towards the uncultivated and out-of-the-way places. Winter drew near, and the forces of Charles XII dwindled to 25,000. His generals begged him to retreat to the Ukraine or back into Sweden for the winter. But the "Mad King" laid siege to Pultowa in southern Russia. Peter's army of 100,000 men almost annihilated the Swedish army. The career of Charles XII and the supremacy of Sweden along the Baltic ended with this battle. Russia received four Swedish provinces along the eastern Baltic by the terms of the treaty which closed the war.

War Against the Turks. Charles XII fled to Turkey after the battle of Pultowa, and influenced the Turks to recapture Azof from the Russians. Peter rashly led his army south, where it was entrapped by the Turkish forces. He was saved by the quick wit of his wife, Catherine, who had been a poor peasant girl of Livonia (a Swedish province). She

gathered her jewels and other valuables and sent them to the Turkish general. A meeting was arranged, and so favorably was the Turk impressed that all he demanded was the return of Azof. The Russian Emperor was glad to get off with such easy terms and agreed to give up his foothold on the Black Sea. Charles XII was furious and made himself so disagreeable at the Turkish court that he was asked to leave. He returned to Sweden, where shortly afterwards he was killed in battle.

Alaska. While other European nations were colonizing and fighting for the possession of the eastern coast of America,



ALASKA

Ten years before the English founded Georgia, the Russians had settled the far northwest.

Russian Empire was built up in America by his later successors. Thus began the romantic history of Alaska, so important to Americans; for in the middle of the nineteenth century, by purchase, the Russian flag was lowered at Sitka and the Stars and Stripes were flung to the breeze.

Beginning of Prussia. At this point we shall take up the story of the Hohenzollerns (hō'ēn-tsōl'ērnz). The Golden Bull of 1356 established an electoral college of seven German States, whose rulers were to enjoy the hereditary right of electing the Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire. In the early part of the fifteenth century the Elector of Brandenburg, one of the seven members of the electoral college, died without

news reached St. Petersburg of a great land to the east of Siberia. Cossack bands had sighted Alaska. Peter sent out exploring expeditions and contemplated a Russia in America. Vitus Bering (bē'rīng), a Dane in the Russian navy, started on his memorable voyage of discovery. But before his return Peter the Great had died, in 1725. The Tsar's plans were carried out by his wife, the Tsarina Catherine, who succeeded him; and a vast

heirs. The Emperor sold the electorate to the Count of Hohenzollern. In 1618 the Duchy of Prussia (East Prussia) was inherited by the Hohenzollerns, as was also the Duchy of Cleves in the west along the Rhine River. Thus the possessions of the Hohenzollerns were widely scattered, and it became their task to acquire all intervening territories.



PRUSSIA

Growth of territory in the eighteenth century.

Frederick I, King of Prussia, 1701-1713. By the Treaty of Westphalia (1648) the Elector of Brandenburg received additional lands along the Baltic. In 1701 the Elector Frederick III received permission from the Emperor to be crowned King of Prussia. The coronation took place at Königsberg (kû'nîks-bĕrk), in the new kingdom. The Hohenzollern ruler was now known as Elector Frederick III of Brandenburg and King Frederick I of Prussia.

Frederick William I, 1713-1740. These early Hohenzollerns were absolute rulers, but unlike James I they believed

themselves the servants as well as the masters of their people. The second Prussian King, Frederick William I, was a rough and brutal character. He had a mania for good beer, strong tobacco, and a well organized army. One of his hobbies was tall soldiers, and he took special delight in organizing the Potsdam Giants. This regiment was composed of the tallest men he could find. In his own country he impressed tall men into service, and by tempting offers induced those from other countries to join. By thrift and hard work he was able to leave to his successor a well filled treasury and a standing army of 80,000 men. With this equipment his son Frederick II, called the Great, ascended the throne in 1740.

Frederick II (the Great), 1740-1786. As a boy Frederick the Great was studious. He was fond of literature and music. He disliked military life, and for that reason his stern soldier father considered him effeminate. Everything that the father held dear the boy detested. Beer, tobacco, hunting, and roughing it with soldiers had no place in Frederick's life. "How would such a son rule Prussia?" the tyrannical old father asked. So he determined to bend this son to his will. He took him before the army and humiliated their crown prince by boxing his ears. On several occasions he thrashed the boy in front of the common people. At length Frederick attempted to escape from this brutal treatment. He was captured and court-martialed by the army, which followed the King's wishes and condemned him to die as a traitor. This order was not carried out and Frederick's life was spared.

The Pragmatic Sanction. Charles of Austria died in 1740, the year that Frederick II ascended the throne. Before his death Charles had made an agreement with all the leading rulers of Europe, known as the Pragmatic Sanction. By its terms those rulers, among whom was Frederick's father, agreed that should Charles VI die without a son all his hereditary possessions should descend to his daughter, Maria Theresa. But no sooner had Maria Theresa been crowned than European rulers began to lay claim to her territories. Without warning and only, as he admitted, to acquire land and fame, Frederick the Great marched south into Silesia (sĭ-lĕ'shĭ-à) and took possession of that Austrian

province. Silesia was nearly as large as his former kingdom.

War of the Austrian Succession. If Frederick supposed that Maria Theresa would let this act of brigandage pass unresisted he was mistaken. The Empress, with her infant in her arms, appealed to the Hungarian nobles at a national diet. They rallied to her standard and envoys were sent to every court in Europe to seek aid. Nearly all of the European countries were drawn into this conflict, known as the War of the Austrian Succession. France joined Frederick. England and Holland joined Austria. For eight years the war continued. It spread to the colonial possessions until, as Macaulay says: "In order that he might rob a neighbor whom he had promised to defend, black men fought on the coast of Caromandel, and red men scalped each other by the Great Lakes of North America." In America this war was known as King George's War, and English and French Colonists were once more battling against each other.

Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748. The war was closed in 1748, by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. Frederick had withstood the onslaught of all his enemies. He was praised and honored by his people. The peace envoys at Aix-la-Chapelle granted him Silesia. All other conquests by other nations were restored as they had been previous to the war. One clause of this treaty was received with much disfavor by the American colonists. The French kings had built at Louisburg, on Cape Breton Island, a huge fortress. It commanded the entrance to the St. Lawrence River and to the interior of America. The walls of the fort were of solid masonry and from twenty to thirty feet high. It had cost more than five million dollars, and the French were twenty years in building it. The fortress was considered impregnable, and yet in this King George's War in America it was captured by a few thousand New England farmers, fishermen, and craftsmen. Its return to France was keenly resented.

The Seven Years' War, 1756-1763. But the treaty that closed the War of the Austrian Succession was only a truce. The next eight years were spent by Maria Theresa in forming new alliances. Frederick, informed of her moves by the Prussian spies at the Austrian court, strengthened his armies

and waited. Sweden, Russia, France, and other German states allied themselves with Austria. Frederick could find no ally except England, which supported him half-heartedly out of hatred for France rather than from a belief in Prussia's cause. The Seven Years' War which followed was one of the most momentous struggles of modern times.

America and India Involved in the War. Frederick defeated the armies of France, Austria, and Russia. Alone



CATHERINE II OF RUSSIA

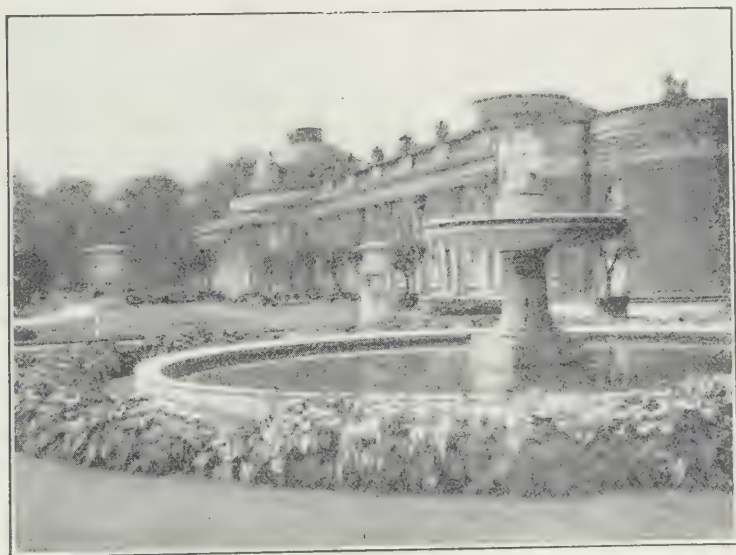
Known as Catherine the Great, she ruled from 1762 to 1796.

with his Prussian army, he held at bay the combined armies of Europe. He proved himself one of the great commanders of world history. But the struggle was a drain on the manpower, finances, and industry of the country. Fortunately for Frederick, when affairs were at their worst, with Berlin captured by Russian troops, Peter III, an admirer of his, ascended the Russian throne and allied his armies with those of Frederick. Three months later Peter III was murdered by his wife, who ascended the

throne as Catherine II. Catherine withdrew her forces and remained neutral. The war spread to America, where the armies of France and England waged a death struggle for the possession of a continent in what was known as the French and Indian War. In India the same two countries battled for the supremacy of an empire.

Treaty of Paris, 1763. By 1763 all the countries involved were willing to cease fighting, and accordingly they concluded the Peace of Paris. Silesia was retained by Frederick. But more important than that, Prussia had risen to dispute with the great house of Hapsburg the question of who should predominate in German affairs. Prussia had shown itself the

equal of Austria, and soon was to prove master and creator of the German Empire. England gained more than any other power. In Europe she retained Gibraltar and the island of Minorca. In America she gained control of Canada, Nova Scotia, and islands among the West Indies. The region west of the Mississippi was ceded to Spain, and France was thus deprived of all her North American possessions. In India, England returned all of the towns captured from France, but French influence was forever destroyed in that country.



PALACE OF SAN SOUÏ

Frederick the Great modeled the palace and gardens after those at Versailles.

Reforms of Frederick the Great. Frederick the Great's influence on Prussia was much the same as that of Peter the Great in Russia. He developed the resources of his country. He constructed roads, drained marshes, aided agriculture and manufactures. He patterned his capital at Berlin after Versailles. He gathered around his court the greatest philosophers, authors, and scientists of his age. He entertained the French philosopher and historian Voltaire (vôl'târ') at his

court. For a time the two were warm friends, but later they quarreled and Voltaire left Berlin.

Poland. To the west of Prussia lay Poland, the largest nation of Europe at this time save Russia. But unlike the other European countries of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, Poland had not developed a strong absolute monarchy. Feudalism, with all the attendant disorder of that system, was still maintained. The nobles, jealous of their feudal rights, limited the King's power to such a degree that he could neither strengthen his government within nor protect it from outside foes. His office was not hereditary, and when he died the nobles met in a general assembly and elected a new ruler. The kingship often fell to a foreigner, who had bribed the electors and who cared little for the interests of the nation or its subjects.

Besides having a weak government, Poland had no strong national feeling among her people. West Prussia was occupied by Germans, Lithuania by Russians, and the Jews formed a considerable portion of the population. As for religion, the Germans were Protestants, the Poles were Roman Catholics, and the Russians were Greek Catholics. Added to these difficulties, the masses eked out a mere existence. The serfs became slaves, over whom the nobles had the power of life and death.

First Partition of Poland, 1772. Anything that would add to the weakness of Poland was encouraged by her unfriendly neighbors, Russia and Prussia. In 1772 Catherine II of Russia, Frederick the Great of Prussia, and Maria Theresa of Austria agreed to step in and take whatever portion of Poland they desired. Thus the first partition of Poland was made. By this act of royal brigandage Prussia took the small territory of West Prussia, which had separated Pomerania from East Prussia. Russia took a large strip of territory east of the Duna River, part of what is now known as White Russia, whose inhabitants were Russians. Austria took Galicia (gâ-lîsh'î-â) and other lands occupied by Russians and Poles, thereby adding two new nationalities to her already mixed population.

Second Partition, 1792. So successful had the royal robbers been in the first great steal, that twenty years later

Russia and Prussia decided to have a second slice. With colossal audacity their rulers boldly stated that Poland was getting too dangerous. Prussia added more than a million Poles to her population, and secured the seaport of Danzig. Russia annexed three million Russians east of the Dnieper River.

Third Partition, 1795. Such a small part of the original Poland remained that three years later a third and last partition was agreed upon. This time Austria once more stepped in to claim her share of the spoils.

Kosciusko. Though Poland as an independent state was now wiped off the map of Europe, yet the spirit of patriotism was not dead. The country found a leader in Thaddeus Kosciusko (kōs-ŷ-ŷs'kō), a Polish noble who had fought under Washington during the American Revolution. It was this friend of America who built the first fortifications at West Point, who later received an annual pension from our Congress, and whose statue stands with that of Lafayette, not far from the White House in Washington. For a time Kosciusko defeated both Russians and Prussians. He gained one victory over his adversaries when part of his army, the peasants, were equipped only with scythes and pikes. He became the national hero. Around Kosciusko the hope of Poland was built. But his little army of 7,000 men was overwhelmed by 16,000 Russian troops, and the Polish general was wounded and lay insensible on the battlefield. This proved the death knell of Poland's liberty. "Freedom shrieked when Kosciusko fell." It was not until the close of the World War in 1918 that Poland again became an independent state.

Colonizing America. The third partition of Poland brings our story up to within a few years of the nineteenth century. Already there was a great reaction against absolutism. A mighty storm of political revolutions was gathering throughout the world. But before we come to the study of these forces we must follow the fortunes of those people who, rather than submit to the intolerance and autocracy of the Old World, colonized a New World in America along different lines.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. What had the Commercial Revolution to do with the eclipse in importance of Italy during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries?
2. What motives prompted the colonization of Siberia? Were they similar to the motives of the early Greeks in colonizing Italy and of the Europeans in colonizing America? Defend your answer.
3. The Murman Coast of the Arctic is three hundred miles farther north than Archangel, yet the former is free from ice the year around while the latter is icebound most of the time. Explain.
4. Why were Poland, Lithuania, Latvia, Esthonia, Czecho-Slovakia, and Yugoslavia given their independence after the World War?
5. Frederick the Great and Catherine the Great were known as Enlightened Despots. Why?
6. Peter the Great built St. Petersburg near the sea. Why did he not build it inland, safe from naval attacks?
7. How did several actions of Frederick the Great affect American history?
8. How did the Court life of France affect St. Peterburg? Berlin?
9. Peter the Great visited England during the reign of William II. Parliament had won its battles against the absolutism of the Stuarts. From the governmental policy of Peter the Great would you say he spent much time studying the science of government in England? Give reasons for your answer.
10. Look up the history of France, England, and Holland during the last two Partitions of Poland, and see if you can find any reasons why these countries did not object to the dismemberment of Poland.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. In Robinson's *Readings*, Vol. II, Chapter XXXII, read the topics that deal with Russia, Prussia, and Poland, and the men who influenced those countries during the growth of autocracy.

II. Make brief reports on the present economic, social, and political condition of a few of the following countries: Finland, Georgia in southwestern Asia, Esthonia, Lithuania, Latvia, Albania, Ukraine, Arabia, Kurdistan, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Alaska, Assyria. (References other than in the Encyclopedia can be found in the *World Almanac*.)

III. Discuss the lives of some of the following people: Voltaire, Catherine the Great, Vitus Bering, Maria Theresa, Peter the Great, Frederick the Great.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

LEVINE	<i>The Resurrected Nations</i>	Stokes
BURR	<i>Alaska (Beautiful Northland of Opportunity)</i>	Page
HAZEN	<i>Modern Europe</i>	Holt

HISTORICAL NOVEL

SIENKIEWICZ	<i>With Fire and Sword</i> (Sixteenth Century Poland)	Little
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CHAPTER XXVI

EXPANSION OF EUROPE INTO AMERICA
AND ASIA

A. COLONIZING AMERICA

Spain in America. More than one hundred years passed after the discovery of America before England, France, and Holland established permanent settlements in the New World. During that period, as we have seen in Chapter XXII, Spain was founding an extensive colonial empire. Although relatively few Spaniards ever came to America at any one time, hundreds of vessels filled with Spanish colonists followed in the wake of the *Nina*, the *Pinta*, and the *Santa Maria*. Skilled craftsmen, honest laborers, adventurers, goldseekers, criminals, and missionaries founded the first permanent settlements in the West Indies, Mexico, Central America, and Peru. In 1565 Spanish explorers settled St. Augustine, Florida. Before the close of the century they had discovered the lower Mississippi, explored the territory now known as Georgia, Arkansas, and California, and founded Santa Fé in the present state of New Mexico.

Spanish Political System. At the beginning of the seventeenth century Spain had a well defined colonial policy. She claimed the entire western hemisphere from Patagonia to

Labrador, except Brazil, which, according to the Treaty of Tordesillas, belonged to Portugal. The Spanish-American possessions were divided into two viceroyalties, New Spain and Peru. The viceroy (king's representative) of New Spain governed Mexico, Central America, the West Indies, and Venezuela. The viceroy of Peru ruled over all of South America except Venezuela and Brazil. Audiencias, or courts of justice consisting of three to five men, formed the only restriction on the arbitrary powers of a viceroy. In the more remote parts of the viceroyalties audiencias, whose presidents were called captains general, regulated Spanish affairs. As time went on and Spanish power increased, additional viceroyalties and courts of justice were established.

Indian and Negro Slavery. Having noted briefly the political structure of Spanish America, we now turn to the social and economic aspects of Spain's colonial policy. The first Spanish settlers in Haiti enslaved the natives. The red men were forced to work in the mines and on the plantations. So cruel was the treatment, and so susceptible were the Indians to contagious diseases, that the native population of Haiti decreased in twenty years from some two hundred thousand to about fifteen thousand. But the natives found a friend in the Spanish historian and priest Bartolomé de Las Casas (läs kä'säs). Las Casas cried out against the cruel slave labor. He went to Spain and besought his government to free the Indians. The Spanish ruler listened intently to this champion of the red men, and issued orders that all Indians in the future were to be paid for their labor. Las Casas was made "Protector of the Indians." The first negro slaves on American soil had been introduced into Haiti in 1502. At first Las Casas, among others, suggested that these hardy black men from Africa take the places of the Indians in the mines and on the farms. Later, however, he became convinced that negro slavery was also wrong; but not before the slave trade had fastened itself like a blight on the New World.

Africa. The western coast of Africa faces the eastern coast of South America, and between these two coasts the slave trade began in 1610. The first explorers of West Africa were the Portuguese. They did little colonizing, however, as their



EUROPEAN POSSESSIONS IN CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA
The African territory explored by the Portuguese was the source of the slave trade.

chief interest lay in rounding that continent and gaining a foothold in India. Aside from this, the tropical interior and lack of good harbors along the West African coast offered little inducement to erect settlements. Because of the Treaty of Tordesillas, Spain had made no attempt to gain territory in Africa. To supply the demand for negro slaves in South America she had therefore to depend first on Portugal, then on Holland, and later on England.



THE SLAVE TRADE

Bringing the first negro slaves into Jamestown, about 1619.

The Slave Trade. The Portuguese erected slave sheds along the coast of Nigeria in Africa. The natives were either bought or kidnaped. Chained and shackled, they were driven to the coast like cattle, crowded on shipboard, and carried across the Atlantic. The trip over was called the "middle passage," and the negroes who survived the terrible conditions of this passage were sold in the slave markets of

South America. There were large profits in the slave trade. European nations competed for the "Assiento" or contract from Spain to supply her American colonies with slaves. As we have heretofore noted, by the terms of the Treaty of Utrecht (Chapter XXIII), which closed the War of the Spanish Succession, Queen Anne of England received the Assiento for one of her commercial companies.

The Class System in South America. The Spanish government restricted the emigration of unmarried women from Spain. Consequently there were far more men than women colonists. The Spaniard therefore intermarried and mixed his blood with the natives. A class system based on color soon developed throughout South America. At the head stood the whites, and below them the different blends. This led to jealousies and resentments among the people. The class prejudice among South American peoples made it difficult for them to present a united front, and to work together for their economic and political development.

Encomiendas. There were other weaknesses in Spain's colonial policy from the social viewpoint. Humane laws respecting the Indians had been passed, but the laws were not strictly enforced. There grew up a system of allotting certain territories, called *encomiendas*, to the Spanish conquerors. The Indians were considered subjects of the King. They were settled in villages and given lands. Schoolhouses were erected and the native children taught to read and write Spanish. Churches were built in these communities and priests instructed the inhabitants in religion. For these advantages, and for the protection afforded by the government of Spain, the natives were forced to give up portions of their farm products and manufactures to the governors of the villages. The governors, in turn, paid a certain amount of their collection as taxes to the Spanish crown.

The "Mita." The government in Spain endeavored to civilize the natives by making life as pleasant as possible for them. But the governors, many of whom purchased their offices, became hated despots. They treated the Indians as serfs and slaves. They established the "*mitas*," which were nothing less than the old slavery in the mines and factories and on the farms. In the latter part of the eighteenth cen-

tury an Inca chief led an unsuccessful revolt against some of these Spanish tyrants. For more than two years the brave Tupac Amaru, known as the last of the Incas, held out against the oppressors of his people. At the end of that time he was captured and put to death.

Mercantile System of Commerce. To understand Spain's industrial and commercial policy it is necessary to have a clear idea of the "Mercantile System" of commerce. This was an economic theory accepted by all European nations during this period. The advocates of this system believed that a nation's wealth depended upon the amount of gold and silver it had in its treasury and banks. If a nation sold more to other countries than it bought, it would have the desired surplus of money. With plenty of money at their command, kings could build large navies, maintain standing armies, and establish their supremacy over the other powers. In order to accumulate this surplus a country tried to sell large amounts of products to other nations and to buy as little as possible. This would create a favorable "balance of trade." Home manufactures and exports were therefore encouraged; while imports, except raw materials which could be manufactured, were discouraged.

Result of the System. While this system developed industries in the home countries, it hindered the economic development of the colonial possessions. It worked a hardship on the colonists, caused bitter feeling toward the mother country, and resulted in smuggling. The settlers did not hesitate to purchase goods from other countries if they could be obtained more cheaply.

The House of India. The commerce of the Spanish colonists was regulated by a board of trade, the *Casa de Contratacion*, designated in English "the House of India." This House was established first at Seville and later at Cadiz, in Spain. Every commodity that was needed to supply the South American colonies was stored in its warehouses. Ships loaded with raw materials from America unloaded their products at the House of India.

Restrictions on South American Trade and Industry. The Casa, with the sanction of the crown, forbade all foreign vessels to land at any South American port. Colonists

were not allowed to trade with any foreign nation. They were not permitted to manufacture anything that could be made in Spain. They could not cultivate flax, hemp, grapes, or olives, because this would interfere with the merchants at home. Only Roman Catholic Spaniards were permitted to settle in South America, and all emigrants were forced to register at the House of India. If they failed to do this and were caught they were sent as slaves to the galleys, for a term of from four to eight years.



A SCENE IN NEW SPAIN

Pack-laden mule trains, or llama trains, are even now a common sight in South American mountain passes. Their burden is still gold and silver ore, but formerly unsuspected wealth has also been found in the exports of coffee, cacao, and copper.

The Yearly Fleets. In the spring of each year mule trains laden with gold, silver, and merchandise could be seen slowly making their way overland to Vera Cruz (*vā'rā krōos'*), in Mexico. Galleons filled with products from the coast were headed for the same port. The Spanish fleet from Old to New Spain was also due to arrive. Everything coming in from Spain, or going out of the viceroyalty of New Spain, was received and distributed at this one port only.

On the northern coast of South America another squadron, accompanied by many convoys, arrived at Cartagena and then made its way to Porto Bello. This was the fleet for Peru. From the southwestern coast northward and across the Isthmus of Panama colonists brought their products to the Viceroy of Peru. Here, as at Vera Cruz, they purchased their yearly supplies at the Fair, sold their goods, and returned home. The Peruvian fleet, stocked with the wealth of the New World, then joined the fleet of New Spain at Havana, Cuba. Together they were convoyed back to Seville. In this way Spain put the mercantile theory to practical use. By limiting commerce to three ports—two South American and one Spanish—she hoped to control and monopolize her colonial trade. Further to restrict her colonists, none of them could return to Spain or pass from one province to another without special permission from the King.

South American Civilization. Despite this narrow colonial policy, the good that Spain did in South America must not be overlooked. She established the first American schools and colleges. More than a half-dozen universities were founded before Harvard College (1636), the first institution of higher learning in the English colonies. Spain built the first hospitals, asylums, and mission houses in the New World. The monastery of Santa Barbara is still standing in California. The first newspaper published in the western world came from a press in Mexico City, in 1693. This was eleven years before the advent of the *Boston News Letter*, the first paper in the English colonies.

Home and Colonial History Compared. The story of South America is much the same as that of Spain as regards government and religion. Despots ruled the country in the same manner as the kings governed at home. The horrors of the Inquisition were introduced into the New World, and religious intolerance prevailed. As the power of Spain dwindled after the defeat of her Armada, so the importance of her American colonies lessened. Today the Latin American Republics are working out their own problems. They inherited many evils from an unsound colonial system, but despite this handicap they are taking their place in world progress.

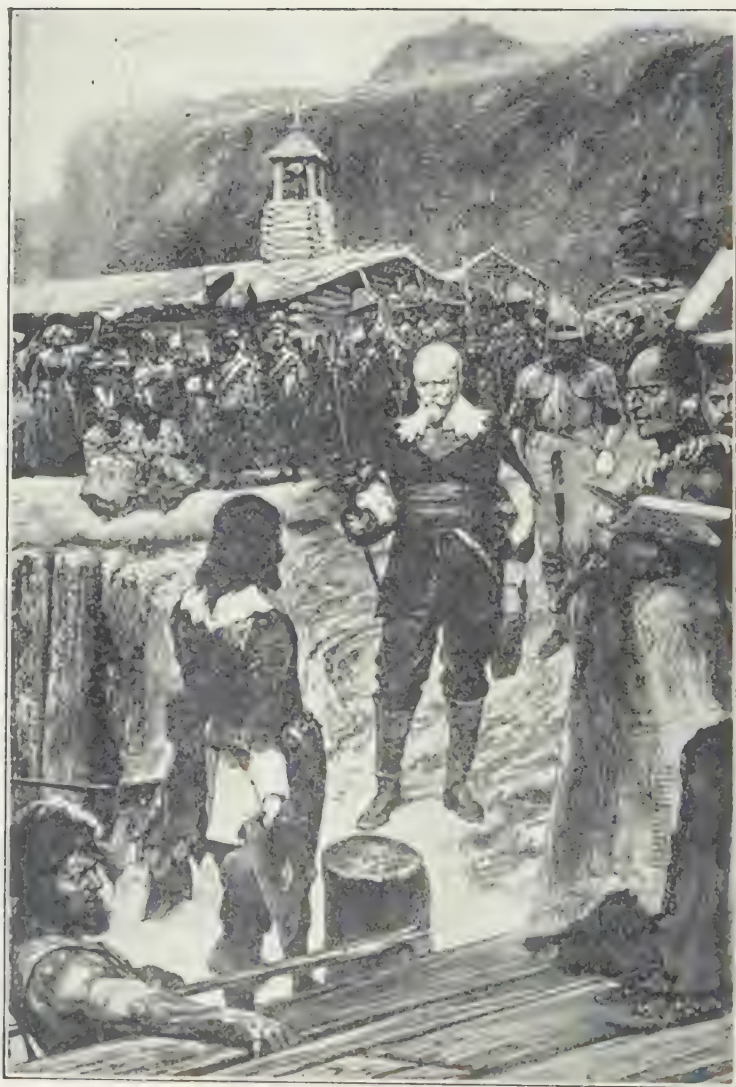
Brazil. Brazil, which is larger than the United States,

exclusive of Alaska, and nearly as large as all Europe, was subjected to practically the same colonial policy under Portugal as the rest of Latin America suffered under Spain. It is the largest producer of the world's rubber and coffee supply. Mahogany, rosewood, and ebony trees from the great Amazon forests are in demand throughout the world. Numerous herds of cattle graze along its grasslands. Millions of dollars' worth of gold have been taken from its mines. And yet its natural resources have hardly been tapped. Its agricultural and commercial possibilities are capable of leading the world. No one can read Theodore Roosevelt's fascinating book, *Through the Brazilian Wilderness*, and fail to appreciate the heroic struggle of the Brazilian government to understand and develop its vast wealth of tropical lands.

North America. We now turn to North America and the more familiar colonial policies of France, Holland, and England. During this period, it will be recalled, those countries and Spain were fighting to maintain the balance of power, and to establish their own supremacy. Just as in the Old World, so in the New, their interests clashed.

France in America. Ignoring the Treaty of Tordesillas, France based her claim to the American continent on the explorations of Verrazano and Cartier. In 1535 Jacques Cartier sailed up the St. Lawrence River in search of a northwest passage to India, and claimed the region for the French King. For the next ten years, while France was torn by civil strife, Cartier made heroic attempts to settle the cold northland around Quebec. Individuals, with permission from the King, financed these efforts; but the enormous expense involved was too heavy to be met in this way. It was not until Henry IV had united France that the French government was able to direct its attention to colonizing America.

Samuel Champlain. The first permanent French colony in America was established by Samuel Champlain (shām'-plān'), "Father of New France," in 1608. Along the shores of the beautiful St. Lawrence, at the foot of a bluff which rises to a height of over 300 feet, he founded Quebec (kwê-běk'). Above this "Lower Town" a citadel with powerful fortifications was eventually built. Guarding the entrance to the St. Lawrence, it has been called the Gibraltar of



SURRENDER OF QUEBEC TO THE ENGLISH

In 1629, during the naval war with England, when that country was aiding the Huguenots against Richelieu, Champlain was compelled to surrender Quebec to the English Admiral Kirk. The settlement was returned to the French in 1632.

America. Champlain pushed southward and discovered the lake that bears his name, on the boundary of what is now Vermont and New York. Three years after the founding of Quebec he founded Montreal. Following the upper course of the St. Lawrence, he discovered Lake Ontario. From there he trudged overland and was the first European to sight Lake Huron. The further hardships and adventures of Champlain, as well as of other French explorers, are familiar to all Americans. It will suffice here merely to mention the colonial policy of France during the reign of Louis XIV.

New France Made a Royal Colony, 1663. Shortly after Louis XIV assumed absolute control of affairs in France he decided to make New France a royal colony. Previous to this time the government and commerce of the colony were controlled by a commercial company of One Hundred Associates. From now on all profits were to go to the Crown, and the government was to be in the hands of the King's representatives. Louis XIV was to be personally responsible for the government of New France, just as he was of Old France.

Bourbon Colonial Policy. When in 1663 Louis took over the affairs of the corporation there were hardly two thousand people in New France. There were no manufactures and very little farming. Fishing along the coast and the fur trade in the interior were the chief occupations. Pelts and skins were the main products that reached France from her colony. Both under Richelieu and under Louis XIV, colonization was restricted to French Roman Catholics. A sovereign council, headed by a governor, controlled all the affairs of government. As in France, there was no representative government, no trial by jury—nothing but Bourbon absolutism. Large proprietors owned the land, and rented it out in feudal fashion. The French King levied the taxes, made the laws, regulated the trade, established the religion, and fixed the marriage age. When there was not enough to eat in the colonies, like a father he sent them food. But such paternalism, as this sort of government is called, did not produce strong, independent spirits. It had little inducement for settlers, who preferred the freer atmosphere of the English colonies.

Zenith of French Explorations. Before the end of the seventeenth century, however, the French domains had been

saved from Indian and English attacks by Count Louis Frontenac (frôn'tě năk'), known as the "Iron Governor" and the "Savior of New France." He it was who, when eighty years old, thwarted an English land and naval attack against Montreal and Quebec, during King William's War. All of the Great Lakes were discovered by the French. In 1682 LaSalle had sailed down the Mississippi and planted the cross and the colors of France near the Gulf of Mexico. He claimed for his King the whole Mississippi Valley, which he called Louisiana after Louis XIV. This marks the zenith of French colonial enterprise before the clash with England. And at this point we shall note briefly the Dutch colonization in America.

The Dutch. Holland in the early part of the seventeenth century was the greatest commercial nation of Europe. Shortly after Portugal discovered the African route to the Indies, Dutch merchants anchored at Lisbon to obtain eastern products from Portuguese merchants. The Dutch then sailed north and sold these goods in other European markets. In 1580 the King of Portugal died without heirs. Philip II seized the government, and for sixty years the King of Spain was also ruler of Portugal. This was the period (Chapter XXI) when the Dutch were struggling to free themselves from Spanish tyranny. In order to cripple the commerce of the Netherlands Philip ordered the seizure of all Dutch vessels in the ports of Spain and Portugal. Undaunted, the government chartered the Dutch East India Company (1602). Within the next fifty years Holland's merchant ships, which were at the same time men-of-war, captured many of the Portuguese eastern possessions. Java, Ceylon, the Moluccas (mō-lūk'ās), and South Africa (Cape of Good Hope) became a part of the Dutch colonial possessions. The officials of the Dutch East India Company, located at Batavia on the island of Java, began to dream of a western route to India.

The Dutch West India Company. In 1609 they ordered one of their employees, Henry Hudson, an Englishman, to sail for America and seek a northwest passage to the Pacific Ocean. He sailed up what is now known as the Hudson River and failed, of course, to find the route his company desired. However, through this voyage the Dutch laid claim to the Hudson Valley. Failing in their design to reach the East

through America, the East India Company lost interest in the western continent, and in 1621 the Dutch West India Company was formed.

New Amsterdam. In 1623 the new company induced some thirty families, mostly Walloons (wō-lōonz') (Protestant refugees from the Spanish Netherlands) to come to America. Some of the people settled in Manhattan, but others went up the Hudson and built homes at Fort Orange, now Albany. In 1626 Peter Minuit (mīn'û-īt) was appointed governor of the Dutch colonies. He arrived at Manhattan Island and purchased the whole region, about twenty-two thousand acres, from the Indians for twenty-four dollars' worth of trinkets. On the southern part of the island he built a fort and called it New Amsterdam. Thus was laid the foundation for America's greatest city, New York.

English Colonization of America. In discussing the English colonization of America it is not our purpose to describe in detail the joys, the hardships, and the bravery of those early settlers and famous leaders in the thirteen colonies. They laid the foundation and were the builders of our great nation. Their story, like that of New France, becomes a familiar one to American boys and girls.



THE "HALF MOON"

Disappointed that the river which now bears his name did not prove to be a northwest passage, Henry Hudson on his next voyage sought a passage to India farther to the north. In the great bay now called the Hudson his men mutinied. With his son and a few companions he was set adrift in a small boat and never heard of again.

The Restoration in England. We told in Chapter XXIV the causes that led to the settlement of Plymouth and Massachusetts. By 1663 colonists had emigrated from the latter colony and settled Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Haven. The settlers of Connecticut clashed with the Dutch fur traders, and there was continual trouble until Charles II was restored to the throne in 1660. Four years later Charles decided upon a commercial war with Holland. An English fleet arrived at New Amsterdam and demanded the surrender of the colony. Old Peter Stuyvesant, the intolerant Dutch governor, swore, and stamped his wooden leg. But the people were not satisfied with the Dutch government, and without firing a shot Stuyvesant surrendered. Charles made his brother James, the Duke of York, proprietor, and the colony was now called New York. The Dutch were given Dutch Guiana in South America to compensate them for their loss of New Amsterdam.

The Navigation Laws. Of much more importance to the future history of the English colonies was Charles II's application of the mercantile system of commerce. The colonists were forbidden to import or export goods, except in English built ships. Tobacco, cotton, sugar, furs, and other articles were not allowed to be shipped to any but English ports. No goods were allowed to enter the colonies (salt and wine excepted) from any foreign market without first stopping in England to pay a tax. This restriction of colonial trade not only was unjust, but it worked a hardship on the merchants and people of the colonies. They had to pay more for imported goods, and in order to compete with other countries they were forced to sell their goods at a lower rate to England. These navigation laws and later restrictions led to smuggling, and eventually were an important factor in the war for independence.

Edmund Andros. The accession of James II (1685) to the English throne was accompanied by Stuart despotism at home and in the colonies. At the time of Charles II Massachusetts had roused the ire of that King by coining its own money, banishing Episcopalians, and ignoring the navigation laws. James decided to quell the independent spirit of all the northern colonies. He united New York, New Jersey, and

all the New England colonies, and Sir Edmund Andros (ăn'drös) was sent over as their governor. He had orders to collect all charters and to rule as the absolute, unhampered representative of the King. Andros taxed the people, abolished the courts, restricted freedom of the press, did away with representative government, and established the Episcopal Church in Boston. Hated in the colonies, just as James II was in England, Andros was driven from the colonies when James was driven from the English throne, in 1688. This explains why the Glorious Revolution and the coming of William and Mary led to scenes of joy in America.

European Wars in America. The crowning of the new monarchs also marked the beginning of those four great European wars that extended to the colonies. The first three of these—King William's, Queen Anne's, and King George's—have been discussed in previous chapters. The fourth—known to us as the French and Indian War—must now receive our attention.

Georgia. Some years before this final clash between England and France in America, England established a buffer colony, Georgia, between Spanish Florida and the English Carolinas. The founder of the new colony, James Oglethorpe (ō'g'l-thôrp), intended it to be a haven of refuge for those unfortunate debtors who, under the stern and short-sighted English law, were overflowing English prisons at that time.

George Washington. The first settlers arrived at Georgia in 1733. The previous year marks the date of birth, in Virginia, of a boy who at twenty-one started a career that was to be one of the most illustrious in American history. At that time George Washington was sent by the governor of Virginia to the Ohio Valley. He carried a message warning the French that they were on English soil. How he delivered that message; his long hard journey back to Virginia; his march to the Ohio territory the next year, at the head of a little force; how the first shot was fired at Great Meadows in Pennsylvania by his men—the shot that was followed by wars on three continents; and how he was forced to surrender Fort Necessity—is a familiar story.

French and Indian War. Two years after that event the Seven Years' War began in Europe, and the French and

Indian War on this side of the Atlantic became a struggle for the possession of North America. Five years later, at midnight of September 12, the British General Wolfe with 3,500 men rowed with muffled oars past the French sentries guarding Quebec. The next morning they made their way up the steep banks, along a path of a ravine. In the early morning General Montcalm (mönt-kâm'), commander of the French, saw the British advancing on the Plains of Abraham. In the battle that followed Quebec fell before the English attack. Both generals were killed.



THE CAPTURE OF QUEBEC

From a contemporary illustration which appeared in the *London Magazine*, 1760. Of course the bluff is much higher than the size of the men climbing it would seem to indicate.

Peace of Paris, 1763. The Peace of Paris, 1763, closed the war in all parts of the world. In America, France ceded to England all of Canada and relinquished her claim to the territory east of the Mississippi. She retained two little islands on the coast of Newfoundland on which to dry fish. New Orleans and the land west of the Mississippi France gave up to Spain, who had been her ally during the war. England also received Florida from Spain, and returned to her Havana in Cuba and Manila in the Philippines, which she had captured during the war. Thus the fall of Quebec spelled the doom of French colonial power in America.

Europe in the West Indies. As for Spain, while she retained most of South America and a good part of North America, she lost her predominance in the West Indies. By 1763 the Danes had taken possession of the Virgin Islands (St. Thomas, St. John, and St. Croix). The Dutch had established themselves on several islands, the most important of which was St. Eustatius (û-stâ'shê-ûs). Here, despite England's navigation laws, they conducted a profitable smuggling trade with the English colonies. The Bahamas had been settled by English Puritans in 1629. The island of Nevis, the birthplace of Alexander Hamilton, as well as Jamaica and the Barbados, were all under English control. The last named group is the scene of Shakespeare's *Tempest*. The French at the close of the war still retained Haiti and about a dozen other islands. Later she received French Guiana, in South America, which she used as a penal colony, a place where French convicts were transported to become permanent settlers.

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The Old World in the New. From Cape Horn to the Arctic Ocean, an Old World had transplanted itself in part in a New World. Between the Russian settlement in the far northwest and the Spanish possessions in Patagonia, nations were being born. The treaty that broke the French power in America also witnessed its downfall in the East. The next part of this chapter will concern itself with the struggle of European powers for the possession of India.

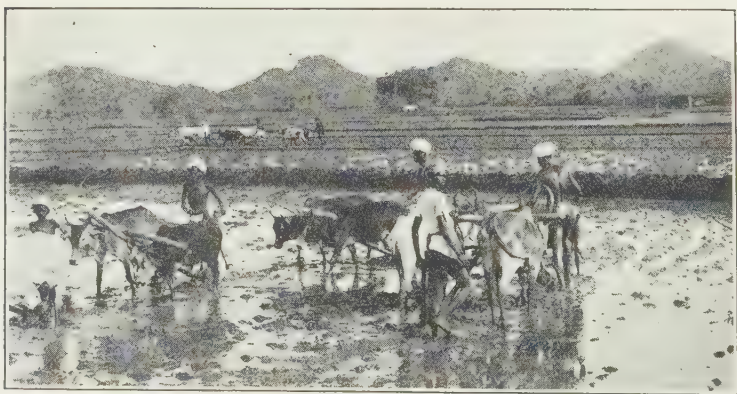


NORTH AMERICA

English and Spanish Possessions, 1763.

B. THE STRUGGLE FOR INDIA

The People of India. By the census of 1921, there were nearly three hundred and twenty million people living in India. This teeming population, almost three times that of the United States, occupies a territory about half as large. There are approximately forty-five different races and one hundred and seventy distinct languages and dialects spoken throughout the peninsula. Nearly two-thirds of the population are Hindus (Brahmans), divided into more than two thousand castes. Of the remaining third, 68,000,000 are Mohammedans; 9,000,000 are animistic, worshiping all sorts of objects under the conviction that they have indwelling souls; there are 11,000,000 Buddhists; 4,000,000 Christians; 3,000,000 Sikhs, who claim one universal god and condemn the Hindu Vedas and the Moslem Koran; 1,000,000 Jains (jānz), who combine Hindu and Buddhist teachings; 1,000,000 Parsees (pār'sēz), descendants of the Persian Zoroastrians, worshipers of sun and fire; and about 20,000 Jews. The southern part of the country is occupied mainly by Dravidians, the oldest race in India, who worship innumerable village deities.



IRRIGATED RICE FIELDS IN INDIA

The Land. Three-fourths of the people rely upon agriculture for a living. For ages the masses have depended mostly upon the monsoon rains to water their lands. These storms

are seasonal. From June to October the southwest winds bring rain to certain parts of India, and from October to December the retreating or northeast monsoon waters still other parts of the land. When the monsoon rains fail, misery, famine, and death sweep over the greater part of the peninsula. Due to this fact, as well as to the dry soil, irrigation has always been one of the problems in India. Today one finds the primitive wells of the poor peasant filled with precious water, to be used in time of drought. There are miles of irrigating canals, large reservoirs, and great dams. In British India in 1918 "two out of every nine acres were watered artificially."

Industry. The principal food of the natives is rice, and more than 80,000,000 acres are planted with this crop. North of Bombay, principally in the Punjab, wheat is the chief food product. Next to the United States, India produces more cotton than any other country in the world. One of the great industrial crops is jute. The glossy fiber of this plant is used to make sacks and twine. From the forests rosewood, satinwood, and sandalwood are shipped to all parts of the world; and India is also famous for its teak wood. The forests are essential to those industries that manufacture shellac, resin, and turpentine. Tea, coffee, and rubber are important products, introduced by Europeans during the nineteenth century. The country has a diversity of mineral products, but only a small part of the people are engaged in mining. While livestock is not considered an important factor in Indian farm life, we must not get the impression that it is a minus quantity. The 1920 census numbered 117,000,000 oxen, 28,000,000 buffaloes, 21,000,000 sheep, 21,000,000 goats, and thousands of horses, donkeys, and camels.

Political India. India, thickly populated as it is, has only two cities with more than one million people—Calcutta and Bombay. Of the total population of India, 250,000,000 are subject to Great Britain. The remainder, occupying about two-fifths of the land, are divided into seven hundred feudatory states. These small political units, governed by rajahs and nabobs, while independent in many ways are subordinate to the British government. Divided as India is in race, language, religion, and government, it faces still another prob-

lem, that of illiteracy. The 1921 census shows that out of its 320,000,000 people only 22,000,000 can read and write. This is, however, an improvement of 4,000,000 over the figures for 1911. Despite these facts, some of the more educated Hindus have become interested in nationalism. They have visited and studied representative governments in America and Europe. After the World War they desired representation in Parliament. Their motto was "India for the Indians." They adopted a policy of non-cooperation with the British. England replied by extending the franchise to a greater number of people, and giving them more opportunity for self-government.

Why Know India. Such, in brief, is the India of today. Its import and export trade with the United States alone amounted in 1924 to more than one hundred and forty million dollars. For this reason, as well as for the great international problems it involves, India should be more than a mere geographical expression to the people of our country. With this in mind, we take up the story of India and the struggle of certain European nations for supremacy in that land. Its story is a part of absolutism and colonial expansion.

Geographical Features. India is shaped like a triangle. The western side is bounded by the Arabian Sea, the eastern side by the Bay of Bengal. On the north it is hemmed in by mountain ranges, the most important of which are the snow-capped Himalayas (hǐ-mǎ'lä-yáz), the highest mountains in the world. They separate India from Tibet. As the smaller ranges extend towards the west and then bend south, they are cut by valleys. It is through these passes that wave after wave of invaders have passed from what is now Afghanistan (âf'-gǎn'ĩ-stǎn') and Baluchistan (bâ-lōō'-chǐ-stǎn') into the great plains of the Indus and the Ganges rivers. But the extreme heat of Upper India during the hot weather months—the burning sun, the dry atmosphere, and the scorching winds, bringing the choking grains of dust from the plains—has always sapped the vitality of conquerors who remained in that region. Often they mingled and fused with the conquered, until they in turn were subdued by other invaders.



BATHING GHATS ON THE GANGES

These ghats are landing places, with stairs descending to the river for bathing purposes. A beautiful temple or rest house is nearly always placed at the head of the stairs. The umbrellas are used to protect the bathers from the bright sun.

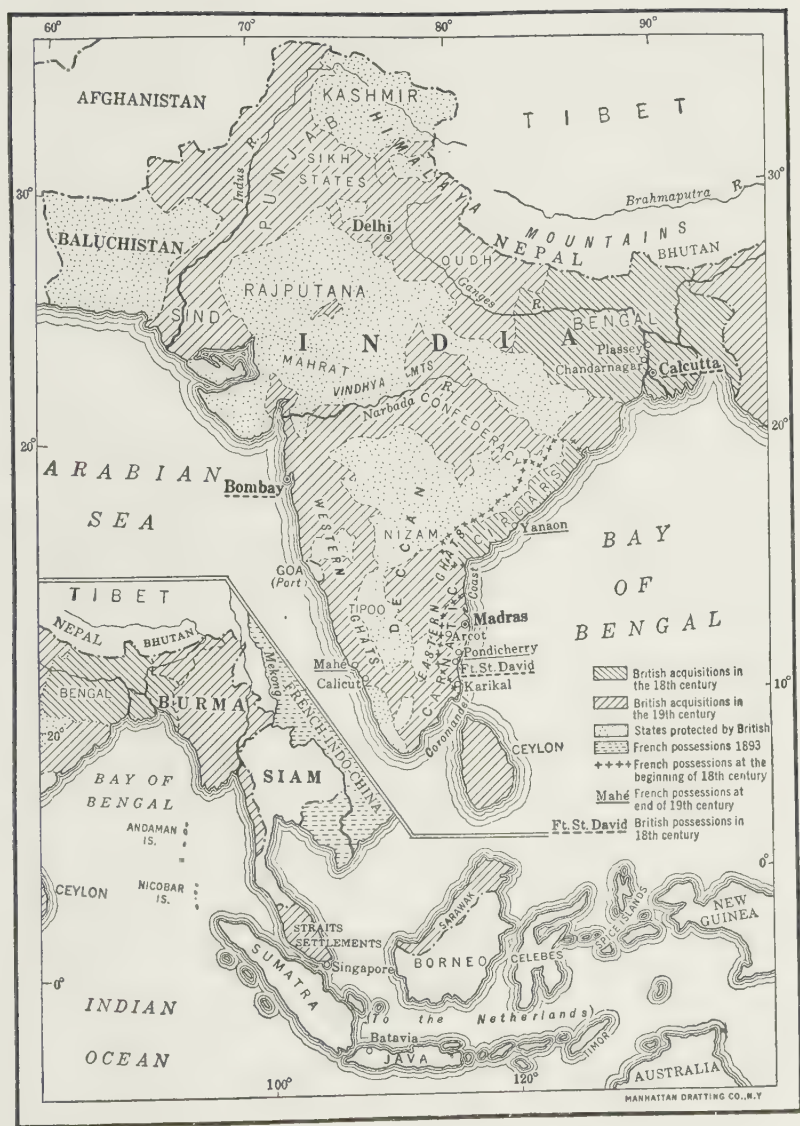
The Mogul Empire. It was through the northwest passes from Afghanistan that Baber (Chapter XIX) invaded India and set up the Mogul Empire, with his capital at Delhi. Baber was a descendant of Timur the Lame and claimed relationship on his mother's side to Jenghiz Khan, the great Mongolian conqueror. While he called himself a Turk, the people of northern India knew him as a Mogul. The Empire established by Baber did not include the Deccan (dĕk'ān). This is the country south of the Narbada River and the Vindhya Mountains; it is southern India. Several independent Mohammedan rulers had founded kingdoms in the Deccan, and there was also a growing Hindu power among the Mahrattas, who occupied the territory along the Ghat (gāt) mountain range in the west. The Mogul successors of Baber extended their authority over most of this region. Much of the Deccan and parts of Afghanistan were included in the Mogul domains.

Breakup of the Mogul Empire, 1707. Besides the differences in race, language, and religion, which caused continual ill feeling and warfare, the Emperors like the old

Frankish kings divided the realm among all of their children, which resulted in more civil strife. And so the Mogul Empire finally broke up. There was an Emperor at Delhi, whom the English called the Great Mogul, but many independent rulers held sway in different parts of India. No one man controlled the country. This was the political condition of India in the eighteenth century, when France and England fought for commercial supremacy there.

The Portuguese in India. The struggle of European countries for India began with the Portuguese explorations, and the landing of Vasco da Gama near Calicut, on the western coast, in 1498. He was probably the first European to visit India since Marco Polo journeyed through those north-west passes as the special envoy of Kublai Khan. Two years later Pedro Cabral, discoverer of Brazil, arrived at Calicut with a small fleet. He established a factory (trading post), made treaties with the Hindu rulers, and waged war against the Mohammedans. In order to control the spice trade the King of Portugal decided to conquer and settle large parts of India, and to create a great sea power in that region of the world.

Decline of Portugal in India. An attempt was made on the part of Portugal to force the Hindus to accept Christianity. In the latter part of the sixteenth century the Inquisition was established, with all its cruelty. Persecuted for reasons that they could not understand, the natives grew to hate the Portuguese. Then in 1580 Portugal became a part of Spain, Philip II was at war with most of Europe, and the Portuguese were forced to take sides with the Spanish. It was during this period that the Dutch rose to dispute the Eastern trade of Portugal. The Dutch East India Company established itself at Batavia and on the Spice Islands. By the middle of the seventeenth century the Portuguese in India, unable to secure aid from the mother country and weakened by the half-caste population within their settlements, fell an easy victim to the Dutch and English traders. Holland's mercantile companies captured Ceylon and Malacca from Portugal in 1640. These islands, with Java and the Moluccas, gave the Dutch control of the lucrative spice trade, and they paid little attention to settling the coast of India. In 1661



INDIA IN THE EIGHTEENTH AND NINETEENTH CENTURIES

Charles II received Bombay as part of the dowry of his Portuguese wife, and England promised to defend Portugal's Indian possessions against Holland.

English East India Company. The English East India Company was first chartered by Queen Elizabeth in 1600. For several years this company endeavored to secure a footing in India, but was prevented by the Portuguese. During the reign of James I the company received trading rights from the Emperor at Delhi. Later, it purchased from a Hindu rajah the trading station of Madras, on the eastern or what is usually called the Coromandel (kōr'ō-măn'dēl) coast. The English were given permission to fortify their factory at this place.

Powers of the Company. In 1661 Charles II granted special privileges to the company. Each member who owned a certain amount of stock was allowed a vote in the management of company affairs. The company was given power to appoint governors, to administer justice, and to fortify and command all fortresses. It was allowed to equip war ships, pay and maintain troops, and supply military stores for the defense of its fortresses. This date (1661) also marks the year that Bombay was ceded to Charles II. Seven years later it became a part of the East India Company's holdings, at a small annual rent. Bombay was the chief English center on the western coast. Later, factories were located in Bengal, on the eastern coast, and Calcutta was fortified.

Europe in India. At the beginning of the eighteenth century the company had received permission to declare war and make peace in all cases where non-Christian people were concerned. It could coin any money that was issued by Indian rulers. In fact, this commercial organization wielded as much power as any sovereign state. Its possessions were divided into three Presidencies, one at Madras, one at Bombay, and one at Calcutta. Each Presidency was governed by a president or governor, aided by a council, and all appointed by the company. Besides the English settlements, there were Portuguese, Dutch, and Danish settlements in India. The French had factories along the eastern and western coasts. Their chief post was at Pondicherry (pōn'dī-shēr'-ī), about eighty miles south of the English Presidency of Madras.



THE FOUNDING OF THE ENGLISH EAST INDIA COMPANY

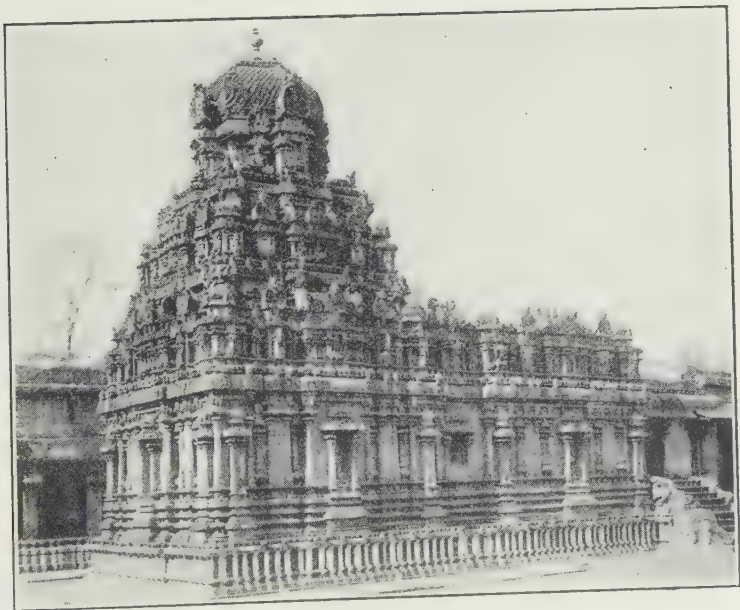
Incorporated by Elizabeth in 1600, the early voyagers of the English East India Company spent years in establishing friendly relations at Far Eastern courts. Their efforts were finally rewarded in 1634 by the Great Mogul, who granted them the liberty of trading throughout Bengal.

French East India Company. Colbert organized the French East India Company in 1667. Ten years later the French acquired Pondicherry; but when the War of the Palatinate broke out in Europe, and the armies of Louis XIV invaded the Netherlands, the Dutch in India captured and held Pondicherry for four years. They were forced to return it by the terms of the Treaty of Ryswick, in 1697. But long wars were sapping the strength of Holland, and the final struggle for India was left to France and England.

War of the Austrian Succession in India. Both companies sought the favor of native princes, and both employed sepoys to aid them in their conflicts against enemy nabobs. In 1740, it will be remembered, Frederick the Great seized Silesia, which brought on the War of the Austrian Succession. England and France took opposite sides. In America, as we have seen, the English colonists took the strong French fortress at Louisburg. In India the French captured the important English factory at Madras. By the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) the French returned Madras to the English, and the English returned Louisburg to France. Thus the efforts of those New England farmers were offset by events which took place along the Coromandel coast, in the territory around Madras and Pondicherry called the Carnatic (kär-năt'ík).

Robert Clive. One of the English prisoners taken by the French at Madras was Robert Clive. Born in England, in 1725, Clive left school at eighteen years of age and went to India as a clerk for the East India Company. He was stationed at Madras. The boy became homesick, lonely, and disgusted with his work, and twice he tried to commit suicide. Then came the capture of Madras and Clive longed to become a soldier. At the age of twenty-three, five years after the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, his opportunity came. At this time the French and English had taken opposite sides in one of the native wars. Dupleix (dü'plëks'), the French governor, supported one claimant to an important throne in the Deccan, while the English supported another. For a while Dupleix was successful, and the grateful Indian ruler proclaimed him nabob over a large territory.

Siege of Arcot, 1753. The other claimant fled and appealed to the English for aid. The East India Company had but few men, and their best military leader had left for England; but English influence in India, for the time at least, was at stake. Then Robert Clive at the head of 320 men and four officers marched into Arcot, capital of the Carnatic, which had been left undefended by the French and their allies. Before Clive could throw up fortifications he was attacked by 10,000 of the enemy. For nearly eight weeks he withstood the assault. When provisions ran low his sepoys offered to give up their rice to the English, while they lived on the water in which it had been boiled. At the end of fifty days Clive still held Arcot, and the besiegers gave up and left. Dupleix's candidate was captured and killed and the English candidate placed on the throne. The interests of the British East India Company were saved.



THE PAGODA AT TANJORE

An example of the attractive architecture to be found in India. It is located at Tanjore, in the province of Madras, and is 200 feet high. Its walls are covered with numerous sculptured figures.

"Black Hole of Calcutta." Shortly after the siege of Arcot, the Nabob of Bengal seized some of the English East India Company's property at Calcutta, and attacked the inhabitants. The President of Bengal refused to surrender; later, however, he slipped away and left his garrison to its fate. They were forced to surrender, and on a hot June night 146 men were crowded into a small room, 20 feet long and 14 feet wide. In the morning only twenty-three men were alive. The rest had suffocated. The scene of this tragedy was ever after referred to as the "Black Hole of Calcutta."

Battle of Plassey. The next year Clive, with nine hundred Europeans and fifteen hundred sepoys, met the Nabob's army of fifty thousand men at Plassey (pläs'ê). Here Clive won a great victory and the Nabob of Bengal was dethroned. He was replaced by a weakling, a man who granted money and presents to Clive and trade concessions to the English.

Seven Years' War in India. The year before the battle of Plassey the Seven Years' War had started in Europe. Again England and France took opposite sides. Again the war spread to America and India. The Indian colonies of France depended upon the mother country for ships, supplies, and money. The French treasury was almost drained; the French India Company was bankrupt. On the other hand, the English Company was rich, and not dependent upon government aid. The same paternal policy that weakened the French colonies in America played havoc with them in India. Pondicherry and other French colonies were taken by the English during this war. The Dutch took this opportunity to strike at the English power in India. They sent a fleet of seven ships from Batavia to the eastern coast, to negotiate with Indian nabobs. At the same time, they seized several British ships. Clive defeated the Dutch troops that had landed, and captured the Dutch fleet. He forced the Hollanders to pay for all damages. The enmity between the two countries continued for several years. The Dutch retaliated toward the end of the century by secretly aiding the American colonists in their war for independence.

Treaty of Paris, 1763. The Treaty of Paris (1763) closed the war, and the French colonies in India were returned. But restrictions were placed on French commerce to such an ex-

tent that her power was broken. Clive had established English prestige among the natives; he had defeated France and Holland, and won an empire for England.

Regulating Act, 1773. In 1773 Parliament passed the Regulating Act, which placed the responsibility of the Company's actions and government more directly under the control of that body. The Company was still permitted to elect its own officers, to conduct its business, and to employ soldiers for its armies. But from now on the Governor-General and judges were appointed for five years and could be removed only by the Crown. Despite this restriction, the English East India Company still exercised great powers.

Death of Clive, 1773. Six years before the Regulating Act, Clive, then governor, left India for the last time and returned to England. He was exceedingly wealthy and honors had been heaped upon him. For his services in India he had been created a baron. But his success brought him many enemies. He was forced to stand trial for graft practiced among the native Indian rulers. The accusation was based upon the fact that he had received money and presents from the Emperor whom he had placed on the throne after the siege of Arcot. After a humiliating trial Clive was vindicated by Parliament. But broken in health and spirits by his hardships in India, and by the bitter attacks of his enemies, he committed suicide.

Successors of Clive. Robert Clive has been called the founder of the British Empire in India. But it remained for his successors to hold it. The chief figures in that task were Warren Hastings and Lord Cornwallis. The latter had a brilliant career in India after his surrender to General Washington at the battle of Yorktown.

British Expansion in India. During the early part of the nineteenth century Great Britain began to extend her rule over wider areas of India. In 1816-1818 she overthrew the Mahratta Confederacy. This was a union formed by a number of native rulers, whose territory extended west from Bengal. Their warring nature made them a continual menace to the English borderlands. After the Mahrattas had been subdued, many of the princes were allowed to govern their native states on condition that they acknowledge the sov-

ereignty of Great Britain. Before the close of the century England expanded her rule in the northeast to the borders of Tibet; on the northwest she occupied the Punjab, once a satrapy of the old Persian Empire; and in the east, across the Bay of Bengal, she annexed Burma. Afghanistan and part of Baluchistan were also included in the British Empire.



AN INDIAN FAKIR

A Mohammedan holy man. His face is whitened with ashes.

Discontent among the Natives. But the event that prompted England to change her colonial policy was the Sepoy mutiny of 1857. At that time the armies of the East India Company consisted of 238,000 men. Of this number only 38,000 were British, the rest were sepoys. There was a growing discontent throughout India because of the spread of western civilization. As one British writer says: "The abolition of infanticide, the introduction of vaccination, the law to legalize the remarriage of Hindu widows, the promul-

gation through our colleges of the facts of astronomy, geology, etc., so opposed to the priestly teachings of the origin of the universe, the dissections practiced in our medical schools, the attempts to establish female seminaries and to elevate the moral and social positions of the female sex, were considered by the army and the masses as so many deliberate assaults on the outworks both of Mohammedanism and Hinduism. . . ."

Sepoy Mutiny, 1857. This was the attitude of the natives when an event occurred in the army which proved the immediate cause of a dangerous mutiny. The British decided to equip their troops with a new rifle. The powder and ball to be used in these rifles were wrapped in a paper cartridge.

The cartridges were greased so that they might slide more easily into the gun barrel. Before slipping the greased cartridge into the barrel the soldier was forced to bite off one end of the paper cartridge, so that the cap when exploded would fire the powder. This seemed a perfectly innocent matter, but the rumor spread among the Bengal sepoys that the cartridges had been greased with cow and swine fat. The cow was sacred to the Hindus—the pig was an abomination in the sight of Mohammedans. It was further rumored that the order to bite the greased cartridges was a trick on the part of the English to convert both faiths to Christianity.

East India Company Gives Way to British Government.

The British had unwittingly used animal grease, and as soon as they saw the mischief it had created they promised not to issue any more of it. But the damage was done. The rebellion was only put down after a hard conflict and much cruelty on both sides. The next year the British Parliament passed an act depriving the East India Company of all administrative powers. Since that time the control of India has been in the hands of Parliament, and the King of England now adds to his many titles that of Emperor of India.

The Next Epoch. The Sepoy Mutiny brings us well into the nineteenth century; and before that event there were other movements on foot that lead us out of the Epoch of Absolutism and Colonial Expansion. Toward the latter part of the eighteenth century nations had begun to revolt against autocracy, and a century of political revolutions followed. This will be the content of our next Epoch of World Progress.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. What were the weak points in Spain's colonial policy? Compare her policy with that of France.
2. The destruction of the Spanish Armada had far-reaching results, and especially influenced American history. How?
3. How was a caste system established in South America, and how did it affect the history of that country?
4. Does a nation's wealth depend upon the amount of money it has? How was the Mercantile System of Commerce a detriment to the colonies? An advantage to the home countries? A disadvantage to the home countries?

5. Explain the English colonial policy. Compare it with French, Spanish, and Dutch policy and tell why it was superior. (Reference: Any standard American History text)
6. Explain the home governments of England and France during the Age of Absolutism and Colonial Expansion, and show how these were reflected in American history.
7. Show how the following events in Europe affected American history: (1) the execution of Charles I and the establishment of the Commonwealth in England; (2) the Restoration in England; (3) the Glorious Revolution of 1688; (4) the War of the Palatinate; (5) the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes; (6) the War of the Spanish Succession; (7) the War of the Austrian Succession; (8) the Renaissance; (9) the Commercial Revolution; (10) the Reformation.
8. How has nationalism been retarded in India?
9. How would the Hindu and Buddhist religions affect cattle raising among the Indian farmers?
10. What were the weak points in Portugal's colonial policy? What bearing did events in Europe have on Portugal's colonial possessions in India?
11. What effect had the Restoration in England upon India's history?
12. How did the War of the Austrian Succession and the Seven Years' War affect India's history?
13. Show how the War of the Palatinate in Europe affected the relations of France and Holland in India.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Probably at no other point in studying the Epochs of World Progress will there be so favorable a time as this to study South American countries. Committees may report on some of the present Latin-American Republics, stressing the geography and the present importance of those countries. References: *South America*, J. C. Carpenter; *Chili and Her People of Today*, M. O. Winter; *Central and South America*, F. D. and A. J. Herbertson; *Panama—Past and Present*, F. Bishop. Encyclopedias are helpful. *Heirs of the Incas* gives most interesting accounts of Ecuador, Bolivia, Chile, and Peru (Minton Balch, New York, 1925).

II. In Chapter XXXIII of Robinson's *Readings*, Book II, read (1) The English Go Northeast in Search of Trade; (2) How the English Got a Foothold in India; (3) The Condition of England before the English Conquest; (4) How England Established Her Control over India (subtopics: The "Black Hole of Calcutta" and Clive's own account of his victory at Plassey).

- III. Report on the life of Robert Clive; of Warren Hastings.
 IV. Read *Clive*, a poem by Robert Browning.
 V. Report on any of Kipling's works dealing with India, especially *Kim*, *Soldiers Three*, and *Barrack Room Ballads*.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

BOURNE	<i>Spain in America</i> (American Nation Series, VIII)	Harper
BOWMAN	<i>The New World</i>	World Book
LATANÉ	<i>The United States and Latin America</i>	Doubleday
MUNRO	<i>Crusaders of New France</i> (Chronicles of America Series, Vol. IV)	Yale Univ. Press

HISTORICAL NOVELS

PARKER	<i>Seats of the Mighty</i>	Appleton
FREEMAN	<i>The Hearts Highway</i>	Burt
HAGGARD	<i>Montezuma's Daughter</i>	Longmans
HOLLAND	<i>The Bay Path</i>	Scribner
JOHNSTON	<i>To Have and To Hold</i>	Houghton
STEEL	<i>On the Face of the Waters</i>	Macmillan

EPOCH SEVEN

A CENTURY OF POLITICAL REVOLUTIONS

In Epoch Six we noted the chief events of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. In France, Prussia, Russia, and Spain there developed autocratic and tyrannical governments. This despotism, as well as the keen national rivalry which had arisen, proved a boon to colonization. We saw how and why people left their homelands to colonize North, South, and Central America, the coastlands of Africa, the islands of the sea, Siberia, Alaska, and India.

During the century from 1775 to 1875 there was a decided revolt on the part of the people in most countries against eighteenth century despotism. The revolutions in America and in Europe were in nearly every case finally successful. Even the genius of a reactionary Prince Metternich could not prevent the gradual emergence of democratic institutions. Epoch Seven, A Century of Political Revolutions, traces these uprisings briefly.

Along with these political revolutions, but extending beyond them, came economic changes so profound in their effect upon human society that they are known collectively as the Industrial Revolution. This will form the theme of the succeeding Epoch.

CHAPTER XXVII

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

English Act of Settlement, 1701. In order to understand the American Revolution and to appreciate more clearly the men and events in that movement, it is necessary to know something of the English government at that time. In 1701 Princess Anne, younger Protestant daughter of James II, was crowned Queen of England. Parliament, by sanctioning this move, had completely ignored the legitimate claims of Anne's half-brother, because he was a Catholic. That same year Parliament passed the Act of Settlement. This provided that in case Queen Anne died without heirs the crown was to descend to the Electress Sophia of Hanover, or her heirs, "being Protestant." Sophia was the granddaughter of James I and wife of the Elector of Hanover.

George I, 1714-1727. Queen Anne outlived all of her children, and upon her death in 1714 the Elector of Hanover ascended the English throne as George I. Thus the House of Hanover, by the will of Parliament, supplanted the House of Stuart, and is the reigning family in England today. But during the World War the name was changed, and it is now known as the House of Windsor (wĩn'zēr).

Whigs and Tories. There were in England at the time of George I two political parties, the Whigs and the Tories. The Whigs upheld the idea that Parliament, and not the King, represented the supreme will of the nation, and wherever possible they tried to limit the King's power. The Tories maintained that the sovereigns held their position by Divine Right, and they endeavored, whenever an opportunity arose, to limit the people's power. The two parties differed on other questions, but these will be discussed later.

Quarrel over the Succession. After Queen Anne's death a movement was started by some of the Tories to place the

son of James II upon the throne. The Whigs, however, insisted upon enforcing the Act of Settlement. They dubbed the Tories "Jacobites" (jāk'-ô-bītz), because they favored James "the Old Pretender," as he was called. They appealed to the populace and to George I by denouncing the Tories as traitors.

The Whig Ministry. The first Hanoverian King of England was fifty-four years of age when he ascended the throne. He could not speak English, and was more interested in the affairs of Hanover than in those of his new dominions. The Whigs convinced him that he owed his position as King to them, and that the Tories were his enemies. For this reason George I appointed all his ministers—chancellor of the exchequer (minister of finance), secretaries of state, war, etc.—from the Whig party. He left the government entirely in their hands. He did not attend their official gatherings, known as cabinet meetings, because he could not understand what they were talking about and they could not understand him.

Growth of Cabinet Government. The Whig ministry found a leader in Sir Robert Walpole (wôl'pôl). He was the first English prime minister, and for twenty-one years (1721-1742) he remained in power. He used the public money to have Whig members elected to the lower House of Parliament; for as long as the Whigs outnumbered the Tories in the House of Commons everything that the Whigs favored could be passed in that body. But the members of the House of Lords held their positions by hereditary right, and their majority vote could veto any measure passed by the House of Commons except those pertaining to finance. Therefore, it was necessary for Walpole to control both Houses of Parliament. For two decades he did this, during which time he was the political boss of the Whigs and the real ruler of England.

Limited Powers of the First Hanoverians. This marks the beginning of Cabinet Government, so prevalent throughout Europe in this twentieth century. It became the custom in England for the prime minister and his cabinet to resign when they could not control Parliament and have their measures passed. Today, since the House of Lords and the Eng-

lish kings have lost their veto power over the lower House, it is necessary for the prime minister to control only the votes in the House of Commons.

Thus we see that while continental rulers were wielding absolute power at this time, the King of England was practically a figurehead. George II, who reigned from 1727 to 1760, spoke broken English, and like his father was more interested in Hanover than in England. He exercised little authority as a British monarch. He considered himself "a prisoner upon the throne," and remarked to a friend, "In this country the ministers are king."

Parliament Not Representative. But the English government was far from being representative. Membership in the House of Lords, as we have seen, was hereditary; while only a few landholders and traders in certain specified districts were eligible to vote and elect members to the House of Commons. During the eighteenth century England, assured of the trade with her many colonies throughout the world, was fast becoming a manufacturing country. As wealthy landlords bought up agricultural lands and enclosed them for sheep raising, the tenant farmers were forced to leave the soil. They migrated to the growing industrial cities of Leeds, Manchester, and Birmingham (bûr'mĩng-ăm), which were located in the coal and iron regions. Soon these cities contained thousands of people, but they were not represented in Parliament. On the other hand, the depleted populations of the old rural communities were still represented. In Bosseney there were only three houses and nine voters; but this little town in Cornwall had two representatives in Parliament.

George III Gains Control of Parliament. This was the political situation in England when George III became King, in 1760. Unlike the first two Georges, he decided to be King in fact as well as in name. He could not depend upon the Whigs to regain the regal power for him, since their avowed policy was to limit that power. The Tories, however, were staunch believers in the authority of the King. They had long since given up their idea of restoring the Stuarts. So gradually George III appointed a group of ministers subservient to his will. They were Tories and known as the "King's

friends." He supplied this ministry with large sums of money to buy votes and gain influence in both Houses, so that he could control Parliament. The King succeeded so well in his plans that he was virtually his own prime minister during the Revolutionary War.

Dissatisfaction in England and America. The new and growing cities of England were dissatisfied with this government. They demanded representation in Parliament. But George III feared that if he tolerated such a thing he would be unable to control that body. And just about this time there came from the

American colonists across the Atlantic that fearless and determined cry, "No taxation without representation!" If the King heeded the demands of his subjects in America, he would be forced to heed the demands of his subjects in the new English cities. So George III sent his armies to America to subdue the "rebels," as he called them. Thus one of the principles for which the colonists fought was the same as that which many Englishmen were striving for in their own country at the same time.

The Whigs in England. William Pitt (Earl of Chatham) was the Whig leader. He had been prime minister during the Seven Years' War. By his vigorous and efficient war policy England's armies were triumphant on three continents. Rising in the House of Lords, in a debate with the "King's friends," Pitt said: "The spirit which now resists your taxation in America is the same which formerly opposed loans, benevolences, and ship money." Later his son, known as



GEORGE III AND HIS MINISTERS

Ministers, left to right: Wm. Pitt, Chas. Townsend, Earl of Bute, Lord North, Archbishop Markham.

From the bas-relief on the monument erected on the Saratoga battlefield in commemoration of the decisive victory of the Americans over the British, October 17, 1777.

"the younger Pitt," characterized the war against the American colonists as "barbarous, unjust, and diabolical." Thousands of English people agreed with the Pitts. The city of London presented George III with a petition which read: "They esteem it an essential and unalterable principle of liberty, the source and security of all constitutional rights, that no part of the Dominions can be taxed without being represented," and added that they "ardently wish to see their fellow subjects in America secured in . . . Peace, Liberty, and Safety."

Tories in America. When we further consider that there were thousands of Tories in America who sympathized with the King, and made Washington's great task and heavy responsibilities so much the more difficult, we begin to see that the American Revolution was at the same time a Civil War, a war in which the rights of Englishmen on both sides of the ocean were at stake.

Causes of the American Revolution. But the American colonists had other grievances which led to the conflict between them and the mother country. As Theodore Roosevelt has said, "The American Revolution was a revolt against the whole mental attitude of Britain in regard to America, rather than against any one special act or set of acts." The fundamental cause of the whole trouble was England's colonial policy, which was based on the Mercantile System of commerce. There were some Englishmen who saw things from the colonial point of view. Men like Pitt, Burke, and Fox, though members of the Whig party which supported the Mercantile System, remained the staunch friends of America.

The Intolerable Acts. A series of Acts of Parliament restraining trade and imposing obnoxious taxes were passed from time to time, causing much friction between the mother country and the colonies. This finally culminated in open rebellion in Massachusetts, which Parliament met with the Intolerable Acts. In 1774 the port of Boston was closed; the charter of Massachusetts was revoked; capital offenses were to be tried in England; and to preserve order, troops were sent over to the colony under command of Thomas Gage, and were to be provided with barracks by the colonists.

First Continental Congress, 1774. In September (1774) representatives from twelve of the thirteen English colonies met at Philadelphia. This First Continental Congress petitioned the King to remove their grievances, and protested against the treatment of Massachusetts. At the same time they urged the colonies to cease all trade with Great Britain until justice was secured. If in the meantime the King refused to grant their request, the colonies were to send delegates to another meeting in the same city, May 10, 1775. George III, upon receiving the petition of the First Continental Congress, rejected their proposals. In February he declared that the colonists were in rebellion.



THE BATTLE AT CONCORD BRIDGE

The next encounter between Americans and British after that at Lexington was a brief skirmish at the North Bridge near Concord, after which the British began their disastrous retreat.

Lexington and Concord, 1775. During this whole controversy the "minutemen" of Massachusetts had been drilling and preparing for armed resistance. They had gathered arms and ammunition and stored them at Concord. In the British barracks at Boston, on the evening of April 18, General Gage

assembled his troops. He ordered eight hundred of them to leave that night and seize the military stores at Concord. They were to stop at Lexington and arrest John Hancock and Samuel Adams, two of the patriot leaders. That same night Paul Revere and two comrades roused the countryside. When the British troops reached Lexington, Hancock and Adams were gone. But on the village green stood Captain Parker and fifty men, ready to block the way to Concord. It is not known who fired the first shot, but firing began and when the smoke cleared away eight minutemen lay dead. The English then proceeded to Concord, but the stores had been removed. There was nothing for them to do but to return to Boston. From behind trees, barns, houses, and fences the Americans fired with deadly accuracy into the ranks of the returning redcoats. That evening the exhausted British troops entered Boston. Nearly three hundred of their number had been killed, wounded, or captured and ninety-three Americans had died for the cause.

Minutemen at Boston. The news of Lexington and Concord spread throughout New England. Within three days minutemen from Connecticut, Rhode Island, and New Hampshire arrived at Boston. Riders were dispatched to the middle and southern colonies to tell of the proceedings in New England.

Ticonderoga. On May 10, Ethan Allen and Benedict Arnold, followed by the Green Mountain Boys of Vermont, opened the gates and entered Fort Ticonderoga (tī-kōn'-dēr-ō'ga). Allen demanded the surrender of the fortress in the name of the Great Jehovah and the Continental Congress—"with authority from neither," as Woodrow Wilson has said. A little later Crown Point was taken, and the cannon and ammunition secured were dragged across the snows that winter to aid Washington in his siege of Boston.

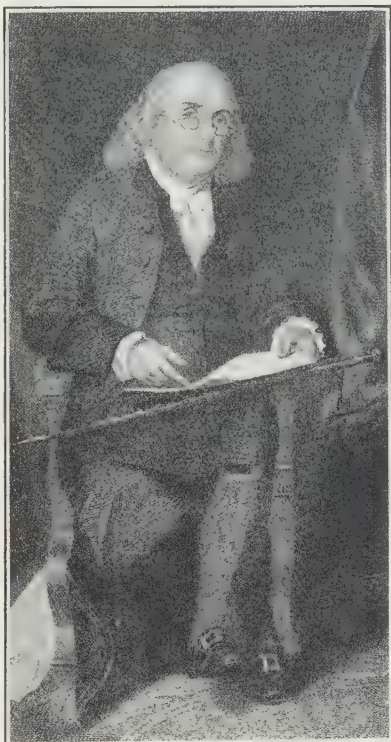
Second Continental Congress, May 10, 1775. May 10 was also the day that the Second Continental Congress had decided to meet in Philadelphia. The delegates had already arrived. John and Samuel Adams of Massachusetts and Benjamin Franklin and John Dickinson of Pennsylvania were there, as well as many other prominent men of the time.

From Virginia came Patrick Henry and Colonel George Washington, the latter dressed in his provincial uniform.

Organized Resistance.

It was a serious situation these men faced. Many of them were not in favor of separation from England, but actual war existed. In view of these facts, the Congress sent a last petition to the King, and then proceeded to organize itself into a national government. It established a post office, issued paper money, shouldered the responsibility for the American troops at Boston, and appointed Washington commander-in-chief of the American armies. The weak point in this government was that the local governments were supreme. Congress could ask them to pay taxes and supply troops, but it had no authority to force them to do so.

The Quebec Act. Only the thirteen original English colonies participated in this revolution. The two British colonies in Canada acquired from France, Quebec and Nova Scotia, had been granted by the Quebec Act of 1773 religious toleration and trial by jury. This was a great improvement over the absolutism with which they had been governed by France. So the French Canadians, who twelve years before



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, 1706-1790

American patriot, diplomat, scientist, and man of letters. His famous proverbs, printed in *Poor Richard's Almanac*, were copied in the newspapers of England and of the Continent during his own times, and are read and quoted today by thousands of people.

had been fighting the British as well as the American colonists, could see no advantage in siding with either party. The Spanish colonies of East and West Florida, which had also been ceded to England after the French and Indian War, were indifferent and took no part in the struggle.

Attitude of France. But the indifference of those colonies was in marked contrast to the interest displayed by their former mother country, France. In July, 1774, the French *chargé d'affaires* in London received a communication from his chief which read, "We are awaiting the moment when the fate of the Bostonians will be decided." There was a general opinion in Europe and America that if the colonists became independent England would lose all the colonial trade. Such an idea, of course, was wrong, for trade depends upon mutual advantage. After the war ended, the old Navigation Acts were no longer in force and products were shipped to France, Holland, and Spain; but they also flowed into Great Britain. Governments did not see this at the time, however.

Letter to the French Government. A secret committee of Congress wrote to the French government: "If France will join us in time, there is no danger but America will soon be established as an independent empire; and France, drawing from her the principal part of those sources of wealth and power which formerly flowed into Great Britain, will immediately become the greatest power in Europe." France had no love for England, which had just deprived her of vast possessions in America and India.

Hortelez and Company. In the early part of 1776 Congress sent Silas Deane (dēn), a Connecticut merchant, to France to interview Vergennes (vē zhēn'), the French prime minister, and if possible to secure aid. Vergennes did not dare assist the colonies openly, because England would then declare war on France. Further, the colonial chances for victory did not seem favorable at that time. But Vergennes decided to help the colonies secretly. He employed a distinguished French writer by the name of Beaumarchais (bō'mär'shē'), a staunch friend of America, to establish a large store to be called Hortelez and Company. The French government supplied Beaumarchais with a large amount of money. Spain gave a similar amount. Then Beaumarchais

bought up large quantities of arms, ammunition, and clothing, and under the name of Horteletz and Company shipped them to America. Beaumarchais worked diligently. He went to the French arsenals, secured cannon, and had the plates bearing the arms of France removed. He purchased ships and employed men to man them, and soon supplies were reaching America where they were sorely needed.

Holland. Holland also entered into secret negotiations and loaned money to America. When George III endeavored to hire Dutch soldiers to fight in America, he was refused. After trying in Russia and Prussia, he finally succeeded in hiring some Germans in the small principalities, particularly from Hesse—hence the name Hessians.

Washington in Command of the Army. In the meantime the Americans around Boston had been driven from Bunker (Breed's) Hill, on June 17, 1775. Outnumbered, and with their powder gone, they had resisted stubbornly. This was the situation as Washington, the hope of America, journeyed towards Boston and on July 3 took command of the Continental army.

Declaration of Independence. One year later, July 4, 1776, the American Congress declared that "these United States are and of right ought to be free and independent."

George Washington. The American phase of this struggle is familiar to Americans. How Washington fortified Dorchester (dôr'chês-têr) Heights and forced the British out of Boston; how he evaded Howe and maneuvered his troops out of Long Island under the very shadow of the British guns; how with a little straggling army of 3,000 men he retreated to New Jersey, where he was forced to face the treachery of Charles Lee, and later retreat again; how, undaunted, he recrossed the Delaware on Christmas night, 1776, defeated the Hessians at Trenton, pushed on to Princeton, and forced Cornwallis to retreat to New York; how in the darkest hours of the patriots' cause the spirit and the lonely figure of Washington held them to their task—all this and much more is part of the glory of American history.

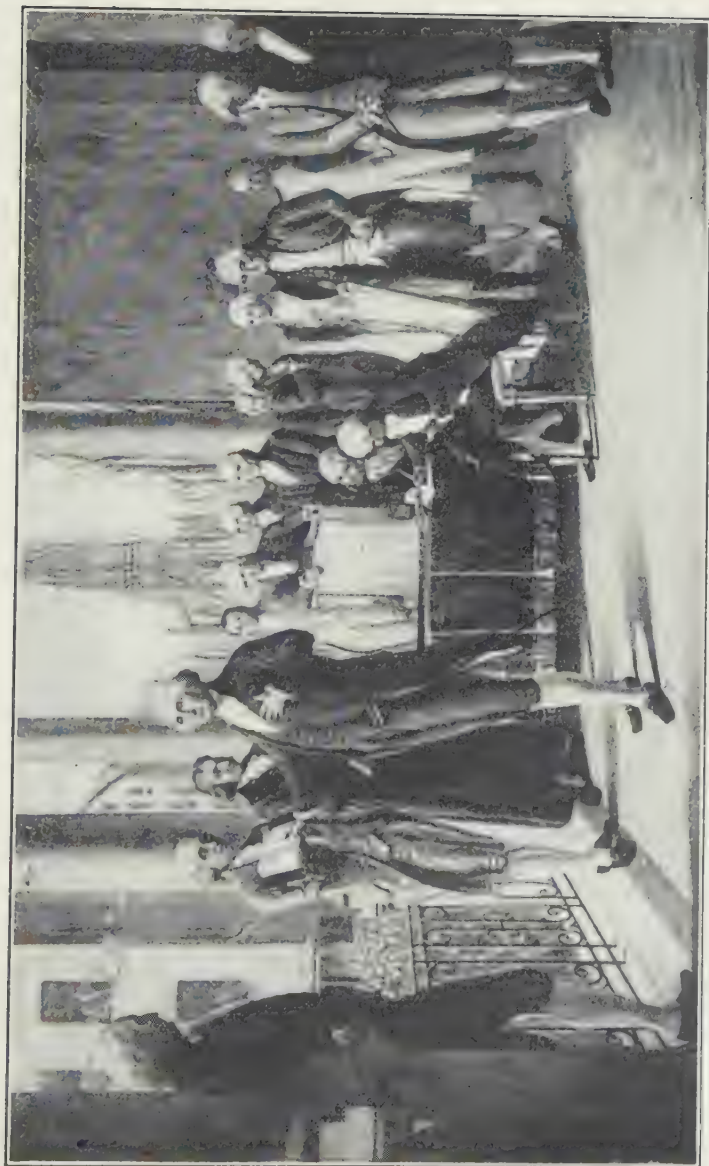
Battle of Saratoga. The next year, October 17, 1777, the British armies under Burgoyne (bûr-goin') were defeated at Saratoga. The American troops under Gates, Schuyler, Mor-

gan, and Arnold went into this battle equipped in part by Horteletz and Company. The battle of Saratoga was decisive. France now decided to come to our aid openly. But that winter Washington, with a handful of soldiers, wintered at Valley Forge. Many of them were barefooted; and when they were paid they were paid in continental money, which had so depreciated that it took a wagon load of it to buy a pair of shoes. That very winter Lord North sent commissioners to America, offering the colonies all the rights except independence for which they were fighting if they would return to British allegiance.

French Alliance, 1778. But the French fleet and French troops were on their way to America. Benjamin Franklin and our other diplomats had signed a treaty with France, whereby that country recognized our independence and declared war on England. England was now at war with America and France, and the next year with Holland and Spain. The bigotry of George III was endangering British interests. At the same time John Paul Jones was threatening the British coasts.

End of the War. In the latter part of the year 1781 Lord North was pacing up and down a room in Downing Street. "My God! It is all over!", he kept repeating. News had just reached him of the Franco-American victory at Yorktown and of Lord Cornwallis' surrender to Washington. Shortly after this the Tory ministry fell and the Whigs came into power. In the succeeding peace negotiations France, urged on by Spain, endeavored to limit our boundaries to the Allegheny (ă'l-ê-gă'nĭ) Mountains. Thereupon we made a separate treaty with England (1783). By the terms of this treaty our independence was recognized and our western boundaries extended to the Mississippi. The United States of America was a reality; but for the next six years her fate hung in the balance.

Critical Period in American History. In 1781 the thirteen colonies formed a loose union under a constitution known as the Articles of Confederation. The Union held together until the final treaty of peace was signed because of the common interest of the states in the conflict. But after the peace treaty the states began to quarrel among themselves.



INAUGURATION OF WASHINGTON

On Thursday, April 30, 1789, at Federal Hall, New York, George Washington took the oath of office and became the first President of the United States. The oath was pronounced by Robert Livingston, who is shown holding the Bible.

There was no strong executive under the Articles of Confederation. The states were sovereign powers, and did just about as they pleased regardless of the wishes of Congress. They taxed each other's imports and made their own protective tariffs. The government had a fifty-four million dollar war debt. Much of this was owed to France and Holland. Congress had no power to raise revenue, and our creditors lost faith in our government. Anarchy broke out at home. The six years from 1783 to 1789 were the critical years of our history.

The Second Revolution. From the standpoint of political science a revolution is a relocation of sovereign power; and men like Washington and Alexander Hamilton saw that another revolution was necessary—this time a bloodless one. They saw that the thirteen sovereign states must become one united state. Accordingly, a Constitutional Convention was held in Philadelphia, a new system of government was formed, and our present Constitution went into effect in 1789 with Washington as our first President.

How the Revolution Affected France and England. The success of the American Revolution encouraged the dissatisfied and oppressed of France. The same year that Washington was inaugurated marked the beginning of open resistance against Bourbon autocracy. In England the personal rule of George III had already ended when the Whigs came into power after the King and his friends had failed to suppress the colonial revolt.

John Fiske's Tribute. No more fitting tribute to the American Revolution has ever been paid than this from the pen of John Fiske, the noted American historian:

"The decisive battle of freedom in England, as well as in America and in that vast colonial world for which Chatham prophesied the dominion of the future, had now been fought and won. And foremost in accomplishing this glorious work had been the lofty genius of Washington, and the steadfast valor of the men who suffered with him at Valley Forge, and whom he led to victory at Yorktown."

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. In what way did the Seven Years' War affect the American Revolution?
2. From the following references have a report on the causes of the American Revolution:
 - a. Howard, *Preliminaries of the Revolution*, Chapters VI-XV
 - b. Van Tyne, *The Causes of the War of Independence*, Chapters VI-IX
 - c. Any standard American History text

From the above reports explain: (1) how the Sugar Act protected English planters, and how the Wool Act protected English manufacturers; (2) why the colonists resisted England after the Stamp Act had been repealed; (3) the Writs of Assistance and the provisions in the Constitution concerning such writs.
3. What were the economic forces that made for the Constitution? Reference: Beard, *An Economic Interpretation of the Constitution of the United States*.
4. Why was France the natural ally of the Americans?
5. Explain the political reasons for our receiving such favorable terms from England in the Peace Treaty.
6. Make a chart or a cartoon illustrating the weakness of our government under the Articles of Confederation.
7. Write an imaginary interview with Lafayette and Beaumarchais that will show what each did to help the cause of the American colonists.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Report on the lives of any of the prominent leaders in the Revolution.

II. Report on any of the interesting events, either in America or in Europe, that fall within this period.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

FISKE	<i>American Revolution</i> , Vols. I and II	Houghton
FISKE	<i>Critical Period of American History</i>	Houghton
PERKINS	<i>France in the American Revolution</i>	Houghton

HISTORICAL NOVELS

ATHERTON	<i>The Conqueror</i> (Tale of Alexander Hamilton)	Stokes
FORD	<i>Janice Meredith</i>	Dodd

CHAPTER XXVIII

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

The French in America. In the spring of 1784 the last detachment of French troops that had served in the American Revolution embarked for France. The soldiers of Louis XVI had fought shoulder to shoulder with men who believed in representative government, trial by jury, freedom of religion, freedom of speech, and freedom of the press; and who in their Declaration of Independence had maintained that "all men . . . are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness. That to secure these rights governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed. That whenever any government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the people to alter or abolish it."

The French in France. The sight of those French soldiers leaving America forms a strange chapter in world history. They had helped a struggling republic in its fight for democratic principles. They, themselves, were returning home to a land governed by an absolute monarch, who believed in the Divine Right of Kings and not in representative government. They were returning to their own shores where trial by jury, freedom of religion, freedom of speech, and freedom of the press were not tolerated. They were returning to a land of despotism.

Autocracy vs. Democracy. The motives of men who, like Lafayette (lä'fâ-yět'), volunteered their services for America cannot be questioned. The value and the valor of the French soldiers and sailors who fought under Washington are not to be minimized. Bourbon autocracy, however, did not believe either in the principles for which America fought or in its republican ideals. But Bourbon autocracy had almost run its course.

The French Revolution, 1789. Five years after the return of the French Expeditionary Forces the people of France, believing the absolute rule of their King "destructive to Life,

Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness," determined to "alter that government." They staged a revolution of their own, and organized a limited monarchy based upon the representative system.

General Causes. Revolutions are not decided upon in a day. Mankind is long-suffering. It is only after continued oppression and repeated grievances that the giant Public Opinion slowly rouses itself; but once aroused, something is bound to happen. In France at that time it meant the end of the "Old Régime," the end of the old political, economic, and social order. Among the chief factors bringing about this change were the criticisms and revolutionary ideas of French philosophy and literature prior to the Revolution. That there was much to criticize we can readily see, by recalling those events in Chapter XXIII that led to the formation and establishment of despotism in France, and by a glance at the Old Régime as it existed on the eve of the Revolution.

Background. Louis XIV inherited the absolute government that Henry IV and Richelieu had molded into shape. He erected his palaces at Versailles, and in the splendor of those halls and gardens the privileged classes of France (nobility and high clergy) idled away their time in gay and extravagant pleasures. They were exempt from most of the burdensome and unjust taxes that fell upon the people.

The Privileged Classes. Many nobles received pensions for performing the useless tasks of acting as social functionaries and flatterers at the King's court. They were given the important commissions in the army, and permission to collect taxes—most of which they pocketed.



AN EXAGGERATED HEADDRESS

Frills and fads were developed to such a ridiculous point that they became popular material for contemporary cartoonists.

The higher clergy (bishops, archbishops, and abbots) were appointed by the King, regardless of their qualifications. The Church owned about one-fifth of the land. It took charge of education and welfare work, and for its support the people paid tithes (church taxes). None of this money went toward the support of the government, since Church property was not taxed. Most of the Church income went to the higher clergy, and they grew wealthy. The work of caring for the poor and needy and trying to secure justice for their people was performed by the parish priests. These were sincere and earnest men, whose pay was so meager that they were barely able to eke out an existence.

Debts and Taxes. The extravagance of Louis XIV was too much for the financial genius of Colbert. Besides his love of pleasure Louis desired military glory. So year after year the armies of France went forth to one war after another. As men were called to the colors industry and agriculture were left in the hands of old men, young boys, and women. Besides the waste of lives, these wars cost money; and the expenses of the government mounted, while the taxes and the misery became more unbearable.

Louis XV. Then followed the rule of Louis XV (1715-1774). The high life at Versailles continued, and under that immoral and pleasure-loving King the court became more corrupt. Government affairs were left in the hands of incompetent courtiers. The possessions in America and India were lost. While France received Lorraine (lô-rân') and the island of Corsica, birthplace of Napoleon Bonaparte, these acquisitions were insignificant compared with the losses; nor did they improve the financial condition of the country. The national debt increased, and in order to meet this debt, as well as the regular expenses of the government, loans were contracted and taxes raised. "After us the deluge" became the flippant motto of the court.

Lettres de Cachet. So despotism continued. When people complained, they were thrown into prison. All the King had to do was to issue a written order, with his name signed to it, and the person mentioned in that order was arrested without knowing the crime of which he was accused. These sealed letters, *lettres de cachet*, with the King's signature,

were often sold to wealthy nobles, who merely filled in the name of some personal enemy and had him imprisoned.

Arbitrary imprisonment affected the upper classes and caused discontent among them. Their personal liberty was always in danger. Books and pamphlets were censored by the King's agents. Authors who criticized the government were imprisoned or exiled and their writings burned. There were in France in 1789 about three hundred thousand people who comprised the upper classes. Not all of these were favored by the King or the Church. Many inequalities and much injustice existed within their ranks, but on the whole this small number was far better off than the Third Estate, which at that time numbered about twenty-five millions.

The Third Estate. The great bulk of the nation belonged to the latter class. It was made up of the professional men, merchants, artisans, and peasants. Many of the bankers, lawyers, doctors, and merchants were wealthy. Some were able to buy influential positions. For example, Beaumarchais, who was the manager of Hortelez and Company and who rendered invaluable aid to the American patriots, was a watchmaker by trade and sold his wares at the court of Versailles. He bought the office of "controller of the King's pantry." His duties permitted him to march with the processions which carved the meats at the King's table. He had the great honor of sometimes being allowed to hand the King or Queen a dish, after which, with a sword at his



THE REVENUE FARMER

One way of raising money was to sell to the highest bidder the right to collect the tax. These collectors were called "revenue farmers."

side, he stepped back, stood erect, and was permitted to watch royalty eat. Later, for 65,000 francs he purchased the office of secretary to the King. He had no duties, but received a title of nobility. The upper stratum of the Third Estate, called the bourgeoisie (bōōr'zhwā'zē') (middle class), produced the great leaders in the coming revolution.

Survivals of Feudalism. But the vast majority of the Third Estate, and therefore of France, were town workers and peasants. Poor, uneducated, ill fed, oppressed, many of them living in hovels and garrets, they were forced to bear the brunt of Bourbon despotism. Except in Alsace and Lorraine, serfdom had largely disappeared in France. But many forms of Feudalism still existed. The guilds, while they no longer dominated government affairs, controlled the manufacture and sale of goods. They restricted their membership and thus limited the opportunities to learn trades. Persons caught violating any of the laws of the merchant or craft guilds were arrested by government agents.

The Peasants. The peasants were not allowed to build fences around their fields to protect crops, as this would interfere with the progress of the lord while he was hunting. They were not allowed to cultivate their fields at certain times of the year, for to do so would disturb the pigeons and ruin the sport of the nobility. They were still forced to grind their grain in the lord's mill, to use his wine press, and to bake their bread in his oven. As of old, they had to give a certain amount of each toward the support of his household. They were compelled to leave their fields, even at harvest time, and work on the roads or on the public buildings, without pay. The land tax (taille), from which most of the nobility were excused, was arbitrarily changed from year to year and fell most heavily on the villagers.

Obnoxious Taxation. Besides the direct taxes there were many indirect taxes, chief among which was the old gabelle or salt tax. In the provinces not exempt from the gabelle every man had to purchase seven pounds of salt a year for every member of his family over seven years of age. If anyone refused, no matter how high the agent set the price, he was either imprisoned or sent to the galleys. Products were taxed before they were carried across bridges or from

one province to another. By the time goods reached the consumer their selling prices, in some cases, were many times the original cost. About eighty per cent of the peasant's income was spent in government taxes, church tithes, and feudal obligations. With the remainder he had to support his family.

Peasants of France and of Other Countries.

Much has been written concerning the misery of the French peasants, of the famines that laid low their lives, and of the crushing taxation. Most of this is true. But the conditions varied among the peasants

in different parts of France, and the common lot of the French peasant was much better than that of the peasants in Russia, Prussia, Austria, and other parts of the Continent. France was the first of those countries to break away from the old order, not because her people were more oppressed, but because progress and enlightenment had now reached the point where a change was demanded.

The Revolution in Science and Literature. The governments of England and the United States served as examples for better things. The continued despotism of the monarchs promoted discontent among all classes, and this discontent was further fostered by the literature of the period. Natural science was making rapid strides in France, as elsewhere. Lavoisier (là'vwà'zyā') was making his great chemical experiments and Montgolfier (mōnt-gōl'fī-ēr) had invented the balloon. Benjamin Franklin's lightning rods were being introduced into the country, as well as his ideas concerning government.



From a fifteenth century window

PAYING TOLL ON A BRIDGE

For generations the people of France had been paying taxes on goods carried from one little division to another.

Montesquieu, 1689-1755. Regardless of censorship and imprisonment, the French philosophers and writers kept France well posted on revolutionary ideas during the reigns of Louis XV and Louis XVI. The first of these great writers in point of time was Montesquieu (mōn'tēs-kū') (1689-1755), a lawyer and member of the Parlement of Bordeaux. His book, *Spirit of Laws*, was published in 1748. In it he opposed the idea of Divine Right, compared the limited monarchy of England with that of France, and suggested that the powers of government be divided into executive, legislative, and judicial, with separate bodies for each. The public applauded. The book was widely read and went through twenty-two editions.

Voltaire, 1694-1778. Then followed Voltaire, the fearless critic, the keenest thinker and most gifted writer of the age. He attacked Church and State alike. *Lettres de cachet* were issued against him and he was imprisoned. But if the authorities hoped to quiet him by such tactics they were disappointed. After his release he would write a biting satire on the subject of arbitrary imprisonment, and increase his reputation among book lovers. He influenced the thinking not only of his own country, but of all Europe as well.

Rousseau, 1712-1778. Another writer who disturbed the joys of autocracy, and created a restless spirit among the people, was Jean Jacques Rousseau (rōō'sō'). He wished to tear down the old social order entirely. He urged people to go back to nature and live like primitive man. He pictured the ideal character of such a life and gained many followers. Voltaire, after reading his treatise, wrote him a personal letter stating that "it filled him with a longing to go on all fours." But in this argument Rousseau appealed to sentiment rather than to reason. He advocated a lazy life, where men could shirk their responsibilities and stifle progress. He ignored the fact that man was a social being, dependent upon cooperation with his fellow men and required to meet necessary obligations. Socially Rousseau would have shattered the very foundations of civilization. Politically he was more sane. In the same book, the *Social Contract*, he advocated representative government, and held that laws were "the expression of the general will" and not of one man.

The Encyclopedists. Diderot (dēd'rô'), a friend of Voltaire, induced a number of scientists, literary writers, and reformers to aid him in publishing an Encyclopedia. The men who helped him compile this work are known as the Encyclopedists. Their definitions of government, taxation, slavery, and law were directly opposed to the methods then practiced in France. After the appearance of the first two volumes the Church officials declared them a menace to royal authority and to religion. The King finally forbade their further publication; but the writing continued, and after more than twenty years the work was completed.

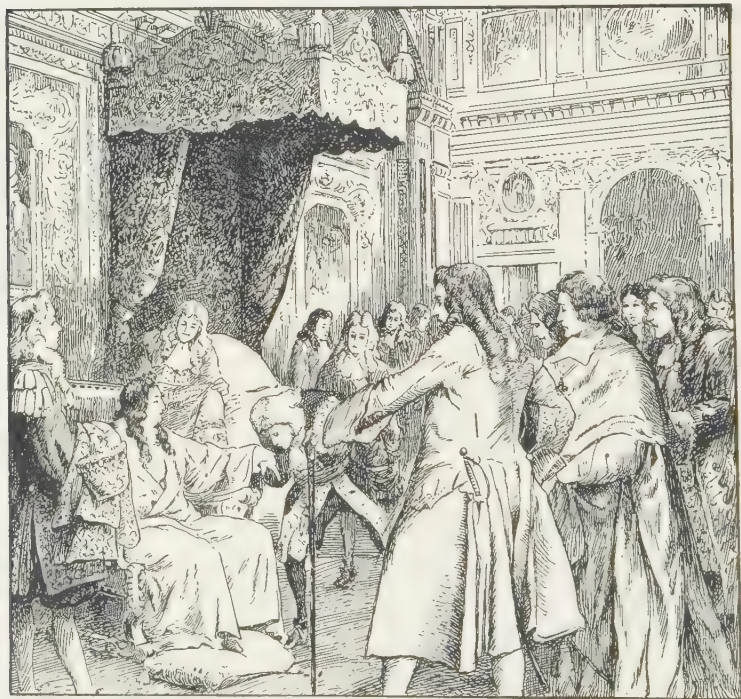
Diderot on Internationalism. In our own day, when so much is being said concerning isolation on the one hand and internationalism on the other, it is interesting to note an excerpt from one of Diderot's articles. "All the men of all lands have become necessary to one another for the exchange of the fruits of industry and the products of the soil. Commerce is a new bond among men. In these days every nation has an interest in the preservation by every other nation of its wealth, its industry, its banks, its luxury, its agriculture. The ruin of Leipzig, of Lisbon, of Lima has led to bankruptcies on all the exchanges of Europe and has affected the fortunes of many millions of persons."

Louis XVI, 1774-1793. Such was the arbitrary government, the discontent of the people, and the spirit of the reformers when Louis XVI ascended the throne in 1774. He failed to see and understand the signs of his times. He was a good man as far as his personal character was concerned, but lazy, poorly educated, dull, and slow in making a decision. He was fond of horses, enjoyed hunting, and when not occupied with those diversions spent much of his time tinkering around the royal workshop mending locks. Short, fat, and clumsy, he felt out of place at the brilliant court of Versailles. In this respect he was a poor companion for his wife, the gay and irresponsible Marie Antoinette, daughter of Maria Theresa, Empress of Austria.

Court Extravagance. The expenditure, waste, and extravagance of Versailles form the same story under Louis XVI as under his predecessors. Entertainments, dancing, rumor, scandal, and intrigue were the chief occupations. While the

King spent four million dollars a year for the upkeep of his 1,000 horses and 200 carriages, thousands of his subjects were starving. While the King demanded twenty million dollars a year from the oppressed to support eighteen thousand courtiers in idleness, thousands of his taxpayers would have enjoyed the wasted food from the royal table. But the Old Régime was nearing its end. France, in order to crush her hated rival England, joined America in the war for independence, and thereby added to her national debt.

Turgot. But even before that the debt of France had reached what was then the enormous sum of five hundred



THE GRANDE LEVÉE

The levée was the morning reception held by royalty upon rising. Only noblemen in favor were admitted to the Grande Levée. While favorites vied with each other to serve as valet, the King received the homage and flattery of less intimate visitors.

million dollars. At first Louis XVI gave signs of improving his government. He appointed Turgot (tür'gô'), one of the ablest economists of France, as his minister of finance. He agreed to stand firmly back of Turgot in any and all reforms that would lessen expenses and lighten the burden of taxation. The new minister, although a member of the lesser nobility, went to work with vigor. He abolished forced labor and the restrictions of the guilds. He cut down the court expenses and did away with many of the useless pensions. These last acts made him enemies among the King's favorites, and before he could plan for the equalization of all taxes and the abolition of feudal dues he was dismissed. Poor, weak-hearted Louis XVI listened to the grumblings of the parasites who were unwilling to share in the obligations of government. He listened to the spiteful accusations of a narrow-minded wife, who wanted her pleasure and hated Turgot. So Louis deserted his minister and hastened a crisis.

Necker. Turgot was succeeded by Necker, a practical business man. It was he who borrowed vast sums of money to finance the French troops in America. He issued a financial report which was published and read throughout the kingdom. The people now saw how much of their taxes went toward the support of the court. But Louis and his courtiers wanted money, not reports, and when Necker tried to cut down expenses by reducing extravagance he went the way of Turgot.

Calonne. The King then appointed Calonne (ka'lôn') to the office. A delightful man, popular with the courtiers and full of promises, he paid the old debts by the magical device of borrowing from new sources. He spent the public funds in a manner that brought joy to the specially favored and distress to the common man. In the short space of three years he succeeded in adding over a hundred million dollars to the public debt. After a time he could secure no more money. The people were taxed to the limit. The year 1788 was a bad year for crops throughout France. The country in general was in a dissatisfied and reckless mood. So Calonne announced to the astonished King that the government was unable to pay its debts, many of which were owed to foreigners.

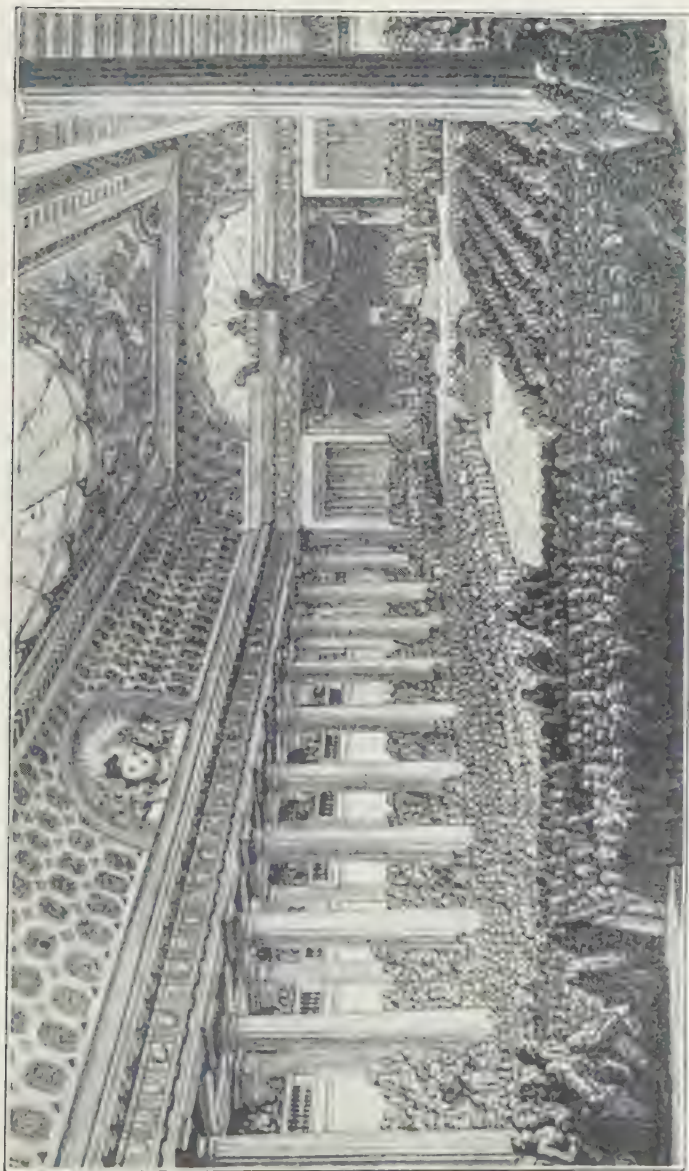
Assembly of Notables. To meet this crisis an Assembly of Notables (nobles and bishops) was called in 1788. Calonne asked these men to sanction a number of reforms which, if adopted, would make them subject to taxation, from which they were now exempt. A part of the assembly was in favor of the plan, but the selfish majority refused to listen to such arguments and the King dismissed both the Notables and Calonne.

Estates General, 1789. Groping like a man in the dark, Louis XVI now turned to the Parlements. But those judicial bodies informed him that even he could not force the notables by royal decree to pay taxes. Such power was vested only in the Estates General, which represented the whole nation. So there was nothing left for Louis to do but to call a meeting of the three Estates. In May, 1789, the Estates General of France met for the first time since 1614. Just five days before, on April 30, George Washington had been inaugurated first President of the United States.

Number of Representatives. Before the elections had taken place, the Third Estate had insisted that they be allowed as many representatives as the other two Estates combined. So they were allowed to send six hundred representatives, and the Nobility and Clergy three hundred each. This was done so that the higher orders could not unite and block all the measures of the lower order.

The Cahiers. The representatives were asked to draw up a list of grievances, with suggestions for reform. These petitions, called *cahiers* (kā'yāz'), fairly presented the popular grievances. Among the Third Estate every taxpayer over twenty-five was allowed to vote. The parish priests were in sympathy with the masses, but belonged to the clergy and voted for the members of that order. The lesser nobility voted as nobles. But the cahiers of all the orders were united on one question—they desired representative government. The Third Estate, among other things, stood united on the question of equal taxation for all orders, and for the abolishment of feudal rents.

Clash of Interests. No sooner had the Estates General met than the First and Second Estates clashed with the Third Estate on the subject of voting. The two former insisted



OPENING OF THE ESTATES GENERAL, 1789

No such gathering had been seen in France for almost two centuries and few people knew just what the Estates General was; yet on every side were heard assurances that only the Estates General could save France.

upon sitting in separate Houses and voting by orders. The latter insisted that the three orders should assemble in one place and vote as individuals. If the vote were taken in separate Houses the majority vote in each House would represent the will of each class. In that case, the Third Estate argued, the vote would always be two to one against them. It was to offset this that they were given six hundred representatives, as many as the other two orders combined.

The National Assembly. For six weeks the quarrel continued. Some of the nobility, including Lafayette and a number of the clergy, were in favor of meeting with the Third Estate, but they were outvoted. Then the representatives of the common people took a bold step. Since they represented ninety-six per cent of the whole nation, they would proceed with the business at hand, with or without the other two orders. So on June 17 they organized themselves into a "National Assembly." Thus the organization of feudal classes, composed of men interested only in their own orders, became an assembly representative of the whole people—the first modern representative government on the European continent. Some days later a number of the more liberal minded nobles and clergy joined the National Assembly.

The Tennis Court Oath, June 20, 1789. On June 20, when the Assembly gathered at the doors of the hall in which they had been meeting, they found it guarded by the King's soldiers and were forbidden to enter. Carpenters were at work preparing for a "royal" session. It was plain that the King meant to thwart the plans of the Third Estate. Undaunted, and feeling that a crisis was at hand, they assembled in a nearby hall known as the "tennis court." Here they voted "never to separate, and to reassemble wherever circumstances shall require, until the constitution of the kingdom shall be established." This was the famous Tennis Court Oath.

National Assembly Sanctioned by the King. Three days later the King did another unwise thing. He assembled the three orders, and in a speech which he read he advised the Third Estate not to interfere with the privileges of the nobility and the clergy. He then ordered the three Estates to adjourn to their separate Houses. Most of the members

from the two higher orders obeyed and triumphantly left the room. But the Third Estate remained seated. This, Hazen says, "was one of the solemn critical moments of history." Count Honoré Mirabeau (mē'rā-bō'), a discredited member of the nobility, had been elected to the Estates General as a member from the Third Estate. He now arose and reminded his colleagues of their Tennis Court Oath. In the midst of his talk the master of ceremonies turned to the members and said, "You heard the King's command?" Whereupon Mirabeau, a man of leonine physique and deep voice, fairly thundered his reply: "Go tell those who sent you that we are here by the command of the people, and here we shall stay until driven out at the point of the bayonet." The actions of the Third Estate were reported to the King. Not knowing what else to do, vacillating Louis ordered the nobility and clergy to join the commons. The National Assembly was now a reality, sanctioned by the King.



STORMING OF THE BASTILLE

Storming of the Bastille, July 14, 1789. But Louis XVI, like Charles I of England more than a century earlier, broke faith with his people. The royal government planned to regain its arbitrary powers. The French troops sympathized

with the commoners, to which class they belonged. They had flatly refused to disperse that body a few days before. So the ill-advised King assembled his royal guards, composed mostly of Swiss and Germans, and ordered his foreign troops in the outlying provinces to break camp and join him. News reached Paris that Necker, who had been reappointed minister of finance and who was very popular with the people, had been dismissed. The appearance of the troops, the dismissal of Necker, rumors of a massacre, and the adjournment of the National Assembly fired the pent-up feelings of the Paris mob. Crowds began to riot and pillage. On the morning of July 14 a mob stormed the Bastille (bas-têl'). This was a state prison and the symbol of tyranny and despotism. Men had been imprisoned there through the hated *lettres de cachet*. There Voltaire and Mirabeau had been confined. Three regiments of French soldiers had deserted and joined the mob. In a few hours the prison was captured, its prisoners freed, and the building razed to the ground. Lafayette sent to Washington the key of the Bastille, which can still be seen in a case at Mount Vernon.

Paris Commune and National Guards. A wave of enthusiasm spread throughout France. Mobs in other towns destroyed the local prisons. Bands of peasants plundered and wrecked castles and monasteries. Paris organized a municipal government, made up of a council or commune whose members were elected from the different wards. They organized a National Guard and appointed Lafayette commander. Communes and national guards were formed in other towns of France.

Revolution, Not Revolt. The date of the fall of the Bastille was afterwards to be celebrated as a national holiday, and July 14 is still known in France as Bastille Day. When Louis XVI returned from a day's hunting and heard of the destruction of the prison he exclaimed, "Why, this is revolt!" "No, Sire," replied a courtier, "this is a revolution." And now the National Assembly, having been saved by the Paris mobs, proceeded to business.

Abolition of Privileges. While armed bands throughout the country were destroying the symbols of the Old Régime, the Assembly was enacting laws abolishing the old privileges.

On the night of August 4 a motion was made and seconded by two leading nobles to abolish all forms of Feudalism. In a few hours laws were passed which wiped out every remaining vestige of the feudal system in France. The payment of Church tithes was forbidden. There were to be no exemptions from taxation. France had acquired its territory in piecemeal fashion, and as new provinces were added they retained their own laws. Voltaire once said that in traveling over France one changed laws as often as he did horses. The Assembly decided that the same laws should apply to the whole land. They did away with the old provinces, and divided the country into districts called "departments."

Declaration of the Rights of Man, August 26, 1789. Three weeks later the National Assembly drew up the Declaration of the Rights of Man. It declared that "men are born free and remain equal in rights," and then went on to sanction trial by jury and freedom of speech, religion, and of the press—so far as these "did not disturb the public order." It provided for taxation with representation, and a government based on the will of the people. France, like England, was to be a limited monarchy.

The King Escorted to Paris. Again Louis XVI failed to heed public opinion. He could not grasp the onward trend of civilization nor the mood of his people. He hesitated about signing the Declaration. The failure of crops in 1789 had caused much suffering in France. In Paris men and women were forced to stand in line for hours to get bread. Many people were out of work and discouraged. Their hope lay in the work of the Assembly at Versailles. And now they learned that the King had not ratified the work of their representatives. Rumors reached them that he was collecting more troops and preparing to do away with all reforms. It was further rumored that at a banquet held at Versailles the new tri-color flag (red, white, and blue) of the revolution had been trampled under foot. Exasperated beyond endurance, several thousand women, with a sprinkling of men, marched to Versailles armed with clubs and pikes. They entered the King's palace and the rooms of Marie Antoinette, "the Austrian," as she was called by the French. The mob forced the royal family to accompany them back to the city.

And there in the Palace of the Tuileries the King resided for the next few years, practically a prisoner.

Confiscation of Church Property. The Assembly followed and established itself in Paris. Its meetings were open to the public, and its work was eventually undermined by the rabble. In November the Assembly confiscated all Church lands and buildings, valued at two hundred million dollars. With this property as security, paper currency called *assignats* (ăs'ig-nătz) was issued.

Civil Constitution of the Clergy. The National Assembly was also known as the Constituent Assembly, as its chief task was to draw up a constitution. The abolition of Feudalism, the Declaration of the Rights of Man, and the confiscation of Church property were all a part of the gradual formation of the document. In July the Constituent Assembly adopted another measure, the Civil Constitution of the Clergy. The old bishoprics were abolished. Each of the newly organized departments became a bishop's diocese, and all the clergy,

from the bishops down to the parish priests, were to be elected by the people. Many of the clergy who favored the revolution objected to this, since their offices would depend upon their political ability alone.

Revolution Accomplished. All of these reforms were now codified and presented to the King for his signature. Louis XVI reluctantly signed the new constitution, which ended Bourbon autocracy and made him a limited monarch. This is the real French Revolution—a comparatively peaceful relocation of sovereignty from the King to the people.



CONTEMPORARY CARTOON

The cartoonist shows under what constraint Louis XVI had sanctioned the Constitution.

The bloodshed and horrors that followed form another story—the Reign of Terror.

The Emigrant Nobles. Had Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette been wiser they might have spent the rest of their days as King and Queen of France. But they continued to plot and scheme. Before and during their forced residence in Paris many nobles, among them the King's younger brother, the Count of Artois (âr-twä'), fled the country. These emigrant nobles or *Emigrés* (ă'mē'grāz'), alarmed because of the destruction of their property and the abolishment of all forms and titles of nobility, sought military aid at foreign courts to crush the Revolution at home. They finally collected a small army on the borders of France.

Flight and Arrest of the King. On the night of June 20, 1791, the King with his wife and family left the Tuileries (twē'lēr-īz) in a closed carriage, with the hope of escaping from France and joining the *Emigrés*. When they arrived near the border, at the little town of Varennes, the King was recognized. Guarded by troops the royal family was escorted back to Paris. Silent crowds lined the sidewalks—a King who would war on his own subjects was returning. Orders had been issued that "whoever applauded him should be killed; whoever insulted him should be thrashed."

Jacobins and Cordeliers. Until the flight of the King there had been little thought of establishing a republic in France. But now the political clubs and the political parties which had been organized began to discuss such a move. The two most important political clubs in Paris were the Jacobins (jăk'ô-bīnz) and the Cordeliers (kôr-dê-lērz'). The former received its name from an old convent (St. Jacques) where its members met; the latter was named from the Franciscan convent in which it assembled. The purpose of these two clubs was to discuss the measures before the National Assembly, to consider reforms, and to influence legislation. Branches of these clubs were organized in other parts of France.

Political Parties. The Assembly had divided into four political parties. One party desired the restoration of the Old Régime; another wanted a government in the hands of the landed nobility; a third wished a limited monarchy en-

trusted to the middle class; while the fourth clamored for manhood suffrage and popular government.

The Legislative Assembly, October 1, 1791. In October the Constituent Assembly, having completed the constitution and received the King's ratification, handed the government over, as provided in that document, to the newly elected Legislative Assembly. The new organization was inexperienced, as the National Assembly had voted that none of its members could stand for reelection.

Declaration of Pillnitz. This proved a serious mistake on the part of the Assembly. Grave situations faced the country, with untrained and overly enthusiastic men at the helm. Two months before, the Emperor Leopold of Austria (brother of Marie Antoinette) and the King of Prussia issued the Declaration of Pillnitz (pĭl'nĭts). They asked all of the European powers to unite and force the people of France to return the old arbitrary powers to Louis XVI. The Legislative Assembly immediately ordered that all the *Emigrés* return by January 1, 1792. If they failed to do so their property was to be seized, they were to be considered as traitors, and if caught were to be put to death.

Persecution of the Clergy. It was not alone the danger of foreign invasions that made these times serious, but within the country a growing discontent, which was increased by the new Assembly. The dissatisfied churchmen who opposed the Civil Constitution of the Clergy were looked upon as enemies of the new order, and were driven from the country. The great mass of French people were Catholics, and the persecution of their leaders tended to destroy their faith in the Legislative Assembly.

The Marseillaise. But when in April, 1792, it declared war on Austria the people rallied around the tri-color of France. The French troops went into battle singing their new national hymn, the *Marseillaise* (mār'-sě-lāz'). Prussia joined Austria immediately after the declaration of war, and the revolutionary armies were forced to check if possible the allied invasion.

The Duke of Brunswick's Proclamation. Besides its decree deporting the church officials who refused to abide by the Civil Constitution of the Clergy, the Assembly issued another



From the painting by Doré

THE "MARSEILLAISE"

The *Marseillaise* was written by Rouget de Lisle and became the marching song of the men of Marseilles, and later the national song of France.

providing for 20,000 volunteers to protect Paris. The two decrees were presented to Louis at this time and he vetoed both. Several thousand men marched to the Tuileries, forced open the gates, and demanded that the King sign the decrees. Louis refused, but appeased the crowd to some extent by placing on his head the *bonnet rouge* (red cap of the Revolutionists). The allied armies, at first successful, were drawing near to Paris. Their commander, the Duke of Brunswick, ordered the French people to submit to their King and provide for the safety of the royal family. If this were not done, the manifesto continued, Paris would be destroyed.

The Paris Commune Gains Control of the Country. A wave of anger swept over the country. Men were arriving in Paris from all parts of France to swell the ranks of the gathering mobs in the capital. In August the Tuileries was again invaded. The mob attacked the palace, which was guarded by nearly a thousand Swiss soldiers, the royal body-guard. The King and his family fled to the hall of the Assem-

bly. The refugees found shelter in the box reserved for journalists, and for sixteen hours remained there. During this time seven hundred of the Swiss guards were giving their lives in defense of the Tuileries, while the Legislative Assembly was debating what to do with the King. But mob rule now displaced the Assembly. The Paris Commune dominated the situation and ordered people to elect delegates to a second Constitutional Convention.

The September Massacres. While the people prepared for the election the Commune arrested several thousand persons, who, they said, sympathized with the Emigrant nobles and allied invaders. Hundreds of these victims were executed. This is known as the September massacres.

French Victories. While this was going on, the French fortress of Verdun was captured by the Prussians. The way was open to Paris. But the French checked any further advance and then took the offensive, invading Germany and the Austrian Netherlands.

The Constitutional Convention, 1792. The delegates to the new Constitutional Convention met and organized on September 21. The next day they abolished the monarchy, created a republic, established universal manhood suffrage, and adopted a new calendar. The months were to consist of thirty days each, with ten-day instead of seven-day divisions. Every tenth day was to be a holiday. The five days preceding September 22nd were to be holidays, and that date was designated as the first day of the Year I. The names of the months and days were changed.

The Girondists—Execution of Louis XVI. Sitting in the Convention was a strong group of delegates called the Girondists (jĩ-rõn'dists), because their leaders were from the Department of Gironde. They opposed both mob violence and the influence of the Paris Commune, claiming that the departments as a whole should wield the power, rather than a group in the capital city. So when the King was brought to trial, through the influence of the Jacobins, the Girondists opposed his execution. Despite this, the monarch was condemned to die. On January 21, 1793, Louis XVI bade a sad farewell to his wife and children. He was escorted to the Place de la Concorde, and was guillotined in sight of the people.



From the painting by Piloty

GIRONDISTS ON THE WAY TO THE GUILLOTINE

Coalition Against France. The following month France declared war on England. The Convention sent word to all nations that the French armies would aid any country that desired to strike for freedom. Austria, Prussia, Russia, Spain, and England now combined against the new republic.

Civil War. The safety of France was further endangered by a civil war within the country. The peasants of La Vendée, south of the Loire (lwâr) River, were royalists and loyal Catholics. An attempt was made to draft them into the army, whereupon they rose in open and armed rebellion. The royalists of Toulon (tōō'lōn), a strong naval base, surrendered to the English, and the cities of Lyons and Marseilles were rising against the government.

Committee of Public Safety. A strong hand was needed to meet the grave situation. The Convention appointed twelve of its members as a Committee of Public Safety, with almost unlimited power over the life and property of every

person in France. The Paris mob surrounded the Convention and demanded the expulsion of the Girondists, as they had sympathized with the King and represented those people who were now taking part in the civil war.

The "Mountain" Party. The Mountain party, so called from its high seats in the convention, were the extreme radicals. They adopted the motto of Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity. Most of their members were Jacobins. Their leaders gained control of the Committee of Public Safety. That body now drafted enthusiastic armies, and sent them forth to battle the combined forces of Europe.

The Revolutionary Tribunal. The Convention appointed another committee, called the Revolutionary Tribunal. This was a law court, established to try traitors and enemies of the Mountain party. Its decisions were final, from which no appeal could be made. It immediately set about to imprison all suspects and all relatives of the Emigrant nobles. Soon the prisons were crowded. People were called before the

Revolutionary Tribunal, given a mock trial, and handed over to the executioners. Morning after morning, for the next few months, cartloads of victims were driven through the streets to meet their death at the guillotine.

Death of Marie Antoinette and Madam Roland. On October 16 Marie Antoinette, after a disgraceful trial in which she bore herself with dignity, was sent to the guillotine. Two weeks later Madam Roland, one of the finest and most outstanding characters of the Revolution, was accused of being a friend of the Girondists



From the painting by Delaroche

MARIE ANTOINETTE ON THE WAY TO
EXECUTION

and was sentenced to die. It is said that after she ascended the scaffold she turned to the statue of Liberty nearby and exclaimed, "O Liberty, what crimes are committed in thy name!"

Split in the Mountain Party. The Revolutionary Tribunal sent its agents throughout the departments of France and thousands of people were put to death in those places. The people were growing tired of this bloodshed. In the Convention Danton and Robespierre (rô'bēs-pyâr') were rivals for the popular leadership. Both were influential, and together they controlled the Committee of Public Safety and the Tribune. Danton thought it high time to cease the wholesale slaughtering. Robespierre gained the upper hand and had Danton guillotined. "Show my head to the people, they do not see the like every day," Danton said to his executioner.

Worship of Reason. The situation grew more confusing. Hebert (ā-bâr'), leader of the Paris Commune, desired to abolish all forms of Christianity and substitute for the worship of God the worship of "Reason." The Cathedral of Notre Dame was stripped of its Christian symbols. An opera dancer, representing the Goddess of Reason, occupied the pedestal upon which the image of the Holy Virgin formerly stood. The guillotine supplanted the Cross, and the public was invited to come and pay homage to the new religion.

Rule of Robespierre. Robespierre did not agree with this, and sent Hebert with many of his followers to the guillotine. The worship of a Supreme Being was ordered; and now for the next few months Robespierre was the Dictator of France. Cartloads of victims still made their way to the guillotine. One morning a man was unable to be



ROBESPIERRE

taken to the place of death because the cart was already overcrowded. That man was the Comte de Rochambeau (ro'shān'bō), friend of Washington and the old commander-in-chief of the French troops in our own Revolution. Before he could be taken the second time the dictator himself had been executed, and the Reign of Terror was over.

The Directory, 1795. In the field the armies of France had defeated their enemies. The bourgeois class gained control of the Convention and hastened the completion of the Constitution, for which it had been called. In October, 1795, it placed the executive power of the government in the hands of a Directory consisting of five persons. The legislative powers were vested in two Houses, the members to be elected by the property holders only, just as in certain sections of the United States at that time.

Napoleon Bonaparte. When a mob of disappointed royalists and Jacobins had attempted to storm the Convention they were met by a thin, sallow complexioned artillery officer, who ordered his soldiers to fire. A cannonade of grapeshot dispersed the crowd and Napoleon Bonaparte, just twenty-five years old, had saved the Convention. This was the man who for the next twenty years was to dominate the affairs of Europe.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. In what way did the American Revolution affect the French Revolution?
2. How did the fact of representative government in England influence French thought?
3. Compare the events that led to the execution of Charles I with those for which Louis XVI was guillotined.
4. What opportunity has public opinion to express itself today in comparison with the Old Régime?
5. Compare the Declaration of Independence with the Declaration of the Rights of Man.
6. Name three permanent reforms of the French Revolution and show how each was contrary to the Old Régime.
7. In what way did the writings of Montesquieu, Voltaire, and Rousseau each affect the French Revolution?
8. In what respect was the Civil Constitution of the Clergy a mistake?

9. Explain how the Revolution itself was a peaceful affair, and what causes led to the Reign of Terror.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Reports can be made from the following chapters of Hazen's *Modern Europe* which not only will prove interesting to the members of the Committee, but will add to the interest and general knowledge of the class as a whole: Chapter IV, The Old Régime in France; Chapter V, Beginnings of the Revolution; Chapter VI, The Making of the Constitution; Chapter VII, The Legislative Assembly; Chapter VIII, The Convention.

II. Robinson's *Readings*: Chapter XXXIV, The Eve of the French Revolution (with its sub-topics); Chapter XXXV, The French Revolution; Chapter XXXVI, The First French Republic—beginning with the flight of the King and the origin of a Republican party—will make interesting reports.

III. Sections 11 and 12 of H. G. Wells' *Outline of History* give a clear description and a profitable point of view on the enthusiasm of the French armies of the Republic, and on the Reign of Terror.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

LOWELL	<i>Eve of the French Revolution</i>	Houghton
ADAMS	<i>Growth of the French Nation</i>	Macmillan

CHAPTER XXIX

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE

While peace had been made with Spain and Prussia, France in 1795 was still at war with England, Austria, and Sardinia. The French lacked a navy, and for that reason it was impossible to attack England. The newly formed Directory decided, therefore, to invade Austria and Sardinia. Two well equipped armies, under tried and experienced generals, were to attack Austria on her northern frontiers. A third army, whose troops at that time were sadly in need of food supplies and clothing, was to march into Italy and attack the Austrian and Sardinian territories from the south. Napoleon Bonaparte was given command of that army, known as the Army of Italy.

Marriage to Josephine Beauharnais. During his stay in Paris he had fallen in love with Josephine Beauharnais (bō'ār'ně'), a beautiful and charming widow six years his senior. Josephine was born on the island of Martinique, one of the French West Indies. Her first husband, a nobleman who had served as a general in the Revolutionary army, had been guillotined during the Reign of Terror. This tragedy left Josephine and her two children in poor financial circumstances. She had many suitors, but fell before the ardent wooing of the little Corsican. Two days after his appointment as commander of the Italian expedition they were married. His bride had the knack not only of retaining old friends but of making new ones. Napoleon said of her, "I win battles, but Josephine wins hearts."

"And on the following day attack the enemy." Two days after the marriage Napoleon bade Josephine good-bye and left for the front. He



From the painting by David

NAPOLÉON CROSSING THE ALPS

found his army encamped in the Maritime Alps, sulking over its recent defeats, poorly clad, and with its pay far in arrears. It was a stupendous task that faced this young commander, just twenty-seven years old. In the first place, he had to gain the respect of his generals. They were older and more experienced than he. They resented the fact that this stripling outranked them. They attributed his rise to a political pull. They could hardly suppress their feeling of disgust when with

enthusiasm he showed them the picture of Josephine. Their first impression was far from favorable. "But a moment afterwards," said Massena, one of the corps commanders, "he put on his general's hat and seemed to have grown two

feet. He questioned us on the position of our divisions, on the spirit and effective force of each corps, prescribed the course which we were to follow, announced that he would hold an inspection on the morrow, and on the following day attack the enemy." As those generals listened to his calm and unruffled orders, and looked into his keen, penetrating eyes, they realized that he was master of the situation.

"Soldiers, I will conduct you into the most fertile plains in the world." After drawing up his plan of battle, Napoleon issued a bulletin to his soldiers. It was one of those dramatic and inspiring orders for which he became famous. Critics have pronounced them cheap and tawdry, but they served Bonaparte's purpose in rousing the spirit and enthusiasm of those to whom they were addressed. "Soldiers," it read, "you are ill-fed and almost naked; the government owes you much, it can give you nothing. Your patience, the courage which you exhibit in the midst of these crags, are worthy of all admiration; but they bring you no atom of glory; not a ray is reflected upon you. I will conduct you into the most fertile plains in the world. Rich provinces, great cities will be in your power; there you will find honor, glory, and wealth. Soldiers of Italy, can it be that you will be lacking in courage or perseverance?"

The French Republic had offered to aid all people who desired to free themselves from despotism. But this declaration of Napoleon's was that of a plunderer, not of a liberator. It was the same military policy as that of Mohammed, and the same worldly appeal that Urban II had made to those first crusaders, just seven hundred years before. It savored of tyranny—it was the forerunner of St. Helena.

Defeats the Sardinians. In April, 1796, Napoleon began his brilliant Italian campaign. The Sardinian and Austrian forces outnumbered his army two to one. But Napoleon had no intention of attacking the combined strength of his enemies. His policy was to keep them from uniting. In a series of rapid marches he descended upon the Austrians, defeated them, and drove them eastward. While the Austrian commanders were reorganizing their troops and getting over their astonishment, Napoleon turned westward and concentrated his attack on the Sardinians. In less than a month

he forced them to sue for peace, and to cede Savoy and Nice to France.

The Bridge of Lodi. Without wasting any time, he marched his army down the south bank of the Po River, and crossed it at Piacenza (pyä-chěnt'sä). The Austrians retreated across the Adda River. To reach them Napoleon would have to cross the bridge of Lodi (lō'dī), which was 350 feet long. The Austrians trained their canon on this passageway and felt secure in their position. Napoleon ordered his advance guard to attack. But before they were half way across the bridge the murderous shell fire from the enemy batteries thinned their ranks, and the Army of Italy began to retreat. Napoleon and his corps commanders dashed to the front of the attack. This action thrilled the troops, and with an impetuous rush they crossed the bridge. The Austrian batteries were stormed and captured. Bonaparte became the idol of his soldiers and they nicknamed him "The Little Corporal."

Napoleon at Milan. Before a year had passed, Napoleon defeated four more Austrian armies and was on his way to attack their capital at Vienna. The Emperor Francis II became alarmed, and in April signed a truce. Napoleon, surrounded by his family and military officers, established a miniature court near Milan (mīl'ăn). He ignored the wishes of the Directory and acted as though he were independent of them. He formed the Republic of Genoa into the Ligurian Republic, and gave its people a constitution similar to the French constitution. He compelled the independent states of Italy, as well as the Pope, to pay him large sums of money as tribute. He plundered the cathedrals and museums and sent their pictures, statues, and works of art to Paris as prizes of war.

Treaty of Campo Formio, October 17, 1797. In the autumn of 1797 he forced Francis II to sign the Treaty of Campo Formio. By its terms France received the Austrian Netherlands (Belgium) and the western side of the Rhine. To compensate Austria, Napoleon dismembered the republic of Venice and gave Austria the eastern portion along the Adriatic, called Venetia. For France he retained the western portion, and incorporated it with other states as the Cisalpine

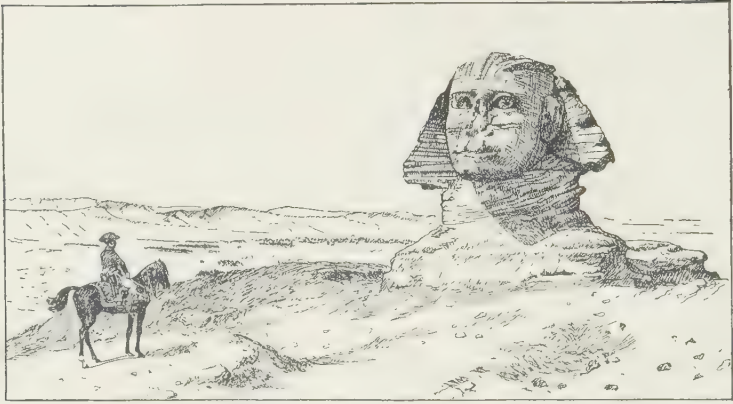
(sîs-ăl'pîn) Republic. He confiscated the fleet of Venice and handed it over to the French navy.

Napoleon in Paris. Many people in France objected to Bonaparte's cruel treatment of Venice. But of the three armies sent against Austria, Napoleon's Army of Italy was the only one that emerged victorious. He returned to Paris and pretended to be properly modest while the people clamored to see the conquering hero. He had already dreamed of overthrowing the Directory, but felt that the time was not yet ripe. He was also afraid that if he remained in Paris his popularity would wane.

Plans to Invade the Orient. Concerning this period he writes: "I will not remain here; there is nothing to be done. They [the Directory] will listen to nothing. I realize if I stay, my reputation will be gone. All things fade here and my reputation is almost forgotten. This little Europe affords too slight a scope. I must go to the Orient; all great reputations have been made there. If the success of an expedition to England should prove doubtful, as I fear, the army of England will become the army of the East, and I shall go to Egypt." Napoleon was evidently dreaming of Alexander and of Cæsar.

Directory Consents to Egyptian Campaign. In 1798 England alone of all the former combatants retained the field. Napoleon asked permission of the Directory to take an army into Egypt, in order to cut off the eastern trade of Great Britain and if possible seize her possessions in India. The Directory, jealous of his popularity and glad to get rid of him, consented. They felt that their own power would be safer with him out of the way.

Battle of the Pyramids, July 2, 1798. In the middle of May, 1798, with an army of 33,000 men, Napoleon embarked on the troop ships at Toulon. Over one hundred scientists and scholars, who were to make scientific studies in Egypt, accompanied the expedition. Landing at Alexandria, the French marched across the hot sands towards Cairo and met the Turkish army, twenty-three days later, near the Pyramids. Napoleon issued another bulletin: "Soldiers, from the summit of yonder pyramids forty centuries look down upon you!" The Sultan's army was defeated and the French controlled Cairo.



From the painting by Gérôme

NAPOLEON IN EGYPT

The age-worn monument of antiquity looks down upon the
"Little Corporal."

Napoleon Trapped in Egypt. But on August 1 Admiral Nelson, commanding a British squadron, sailed into the harbor of Abukir Bay, and in the Battle of the Nile destroyed the French fleet and transports. Napoleon was now trapped in Egypt, with no means of escape. He marched northward into Syria, his soldiers suffering from heat and thirst as they crossed the desert, and won several unimportant engagements. Napoleon then laid siege to Acre, but was unable to take it because of the fire from the British fleet. He retreated back into Egypt, where he issued false reports concerning his campaign. He covered his blunders by lies in order to save his reputation. And now, hearing that the Directory had fallen into disfavor, he handed over his command to another. He deliberately deserted his army and left it to surrender to the British. The discovery of the Rosetta Stone (Chapter III) was the only important achievement of the expedition.

Corruptness of the Directory. Napoleon arrived at Paris in October, 1799. Under the corrupt government of the Directory affairs were going from bad to worse. Russia and Austria united with England, and the allied armies had already driven the French from Italy. The Directory had

tried to bribe the United States Commissioners in France, which resulted in the "XYZ Affair" and our naval warfare against the French in 1798-9. The people blamed the Directory for sending into Egypt the only man who could check the allies. They knew nothing of that man's disasters in the Orient. Napoleon appeared upon the scene—the time was now ripe to overthrow the Directory.

The Consulate, 1799-1804. With the aid of his brother Lucien and a band of soldiers this was accomplished. In 1799 a constitution was drawn up—the fourth since the beginning of the French Revolution—and a Consulate was established. Napoleon became chief executive, with the title of First Consul, and wielded enormous powers.

Battles of Marengo and Hohenlinden. Secure in his political power, the First Consul now directed his attention to the Austrian army, which was overrunning Italy and besieging the French at Genoa. Napoleon collected an army of 40,000 men and in the spring of 1800 crossed the Alps by way of the Great Saint Bernard Pass (Chapter XII). The artillerymen dragged their cannon over the snow and ice in hollowed-out trunks of trees. Napoleon arrived at Milan in June, and met the Austrians unexpectedly at Marengo (mă-rĕn'gō). After a stubborn all-day conflict the French were victorious. The next day a truce was signed and Austria returned all of northern Italy to France. Six months later the French general Moreau routed the Austrian forces at Hohenlinden (hō'ĕn-lĭn'dĕn), Bavaria, and the road to Vienna was clear. Austria again sued for peace.

Treaties of Luneville and Amiens. By the Treaty of Luneville (1801) the Emperor ceded to France all the territories of the Holy Roman Empire west of the Rhine. Many of the petty rulers in the German states were thus dispossessed of their governments. They were to be compensated, however, by lands on the other side of the river. The following year, by the Peace of Amiens (ăm'ĭ-ĕnz), hostilities with Great Britain were suspended and Napoleon was at peace with the world. He was now free to apply himself to the internal affairs of France.

A Benevolent Despot. One of his first acts was to centralize the government and make his authority supreme in all

matters. He decided to play the part of a benevolent despot and go back to the paternal system of Louis XIV. The constitution which established the Consulate deprived the people of any real democratic government. Even the prefects of the Departments and the mayors of the towns and cities were appointed by Napoleon. He established a strict consorship of books and newspapers, and stifled public opinion by organizing an extensive spy system. In 1792 Condorcet (kôn'-dôr'cě'), a statesman of high order, had drafted a school code which provided for the free education of all the children of France. Napoleon ignored both elementary schools and education for girls. But he promoted advanced institutions of learning. He ordered the churches to teach obedience to their ruler. He aided foreign missions and ordered the missionaries to act as spies, reporting on political and commercial conditions throughout the world.

The Concordat. While the above measures were a step backward, he accomplished other things that benefited France. He permitted all the Emigrant nobles to return and opened the public offices for Royalists and Jacobins alike. He made an agreement with the Pope, called the Concordat, which re-established Catholicism as the State religion. All the Church officials who had refused to abide by the Civil Constitution of the Clergy, and had left France or been imprisoned, were pardoned if they agreed to support the new constitution. He recognized the Pope as the head of the Church, and abolished the election of bishops and priests by the people. In the future the clergy were to be paid by the State. This remained the policy of France until 1905. Napoleon retained the right to appoint those officials.

Internal Reforms. One of the reasons why Napoleon was able to usurp so much power is found when we study the conditions within the country at that time. During the political upheavals in France the industries, roads, and harbors were neglected. Robbers lurked along the highways and the cities were unsafe, due to the lack of any strong government. The wars were a heavy drain on the people and the financial condition was terrible. Napoleon encouraged manufactures, built roads, drained harbors, improved the system of taxation, and restored order. He established the Bank of France, and placed



From the painting by David

THE CORONATION OF JOSEPHINE

the country on a firm financial basis. These were the things the people desired—peace, prosperity, and order.

The Code Napoleon. The different laws that had been made by the successive governments since the overthrow of the Old Régime resulted in a great deal of confusion. The people were unable to keep track of the laws. Napoleon reduced them to a simple, compact form, which he called the Code Napoleon. While on St. Helena he said, "Waterloo will wipe out the memory of my forty victories, but that which nothing will wipe away is my Civil Code."

Napoleon Consul for Life. The Code Napoleon became the foundation for the civil law in many European countries, as well as for the state of Louisiana. In order to continue his reforms the Council of State, which he appointed, proposed to the French people that Bonaparte be elected Consul for life, and be allowed to choose his successor. The people voted their approval; and in August, 1802, he established a court, introduced the old forms of monarchy, and signed the name "Napoleon" to all state papers.

Emperor of France. Two years later another plebiscite (vote of the people) decided that he should be Emperor. Napoleon sent for Pope Pius VII to preside at the coronation ceremony. On December 2, 1804, in the midst of an imposing assemblage, he took the golden laurel wreath from the hands of the Pope, placed it on his own head, and became Napoleon I, Emperor of France. He then proclaimed Josephine as Empress.

Visions of Dominating Europe. But the peace for which France hoped was not forthcoming. The ambition of Napoleon was not satisfied. "I love power," he said, "as a musician loves his violin. I love it as an artist." In 1802 he made the statement that he would keep peace only so long as his neighbors were able to maintain it. Later he declared, "there will be no rest in Europe until it is under a single chief,—an Emperor who shall have kings for officers, who shall distribute kingdoms to his lieutenants."

War Renewed. But the leading countries of Europe were not willing to tolerate a man who desired to govern them in such a despotic fashion. The year following the Treaty of Amiens war broke out once more between England and

France. Napoleon had imposed high tariffs on English goods, which threatened to destroy much of Great Britain's commerce and industry. The British induced Austria and Russia in 1805 to join her in the war against France.

Treaty of San Ildefonso. In preparation for the coming struggle Napoleon needed money. It will be remembered that Spain, at the close of the Seven Years' War, received from France the vast stretch of territory in America west of the Mississippi River known as Louisiana. In 1800 Napoleon dreamed of a colonial empire in the New World. His thoughts turned to Louisiana, which had been explored and settled by those intrepid Frenchmen during the seventeenth century. In 1800, by a secret treaty with Spain, Louisiana was ceded to France. It extended from the Mississippi to the Rocky Mountains. Before the territory was handed over, Spain closed the mouth of the river to the trade of the United States.

Threatening Attitude of the United States. The people of the west, especially in Kentucky and Tennessee, were furious. Without an outlet to the sea, at a time when there were no railways, canals, or good roads, the closing of the Mississippi would ruin their trade. The western frontiersmen threatened to march against New Orleans and capture it. Thomas Jefferson wrote to Robert Livingston, our minister in France: "The day that France takes possession of New Orleans . . . from that moment we must marry ourselves to the British fleet and nation." Congress, too, prepared for war.

Sale of Louisiana to the United States, 1803. President Jefferson, alarmed at the situation, sent commissioners to Napoleon offering to buy New Orleans. At first Bonaparte refused, but news reached him that some 10,000 of his troops on the island of Haiti had been destroyed by the negro general Toussaint L'Ouverture (toō' sǎn' loō'vēr'tür'). The coming war with England, the hostility of the natives in Haiti, the attitude of America, and the need of money prompted Napoleon to change his mind about the sale of New Orleans. He ordered his minister Talleyrand to sell the whole province for \$15,000,000. The United States thus acquired the Louisiana Territory, larger than the thirteen original states combined, and costing but a few cents an acre.

Napoleon Prepared to Attack England. As soon as the war with England broke out Napoleon seized the German state of Hanover, which, it will be recalled, had belonged to the English kings since the accession of George I. He next gathered a large army and pretended to make preparation for the invasion of England. But the British fleet under Nelson guarded the English Channel, and Napoleon decided to strike England later. In the meantime he had been crowned Emperor, and Austria and Russia had allied themselves with Great Britain.

Battle of Austerlitz. Bonaparte ordered his army from the coast and marched eastward. By November, 1805, he had defeated an Austrian army and entered Vienna. The Austrian Emperor, Francis II, retreated northward. Napoleon followed and met the combined forces of Austria and Russia at Austerlitz (ô's'têr-līts). There, one year after his coronation, Bonaparte crushed the allied forces. The Russian army retreated in great disorder, and the proud house of Hapsburg was humbled as never before when Francis II agreed to the Treaty of Pressburg.

Treaty of Pressburg. By the terms of this treaty Austria ceded Venetia to Napoleon. He had already organized a kingdom in north Italy, and like Charlemagne of old crowned himself King of the Lombards with the "iron crown." Venetia was now added to his Kingdom of Italy. Austria also gave up all her territory along the Adriatic except Trieste (trê-êst'). The rulers of Bavaria and Wurtemberg had aided him in this war, and he now forced Austria to cede them German territory and acknowledge them as Kings.

Confederation of the Rhine. The following year fourteen South German states broke away from the Holy Roman Empire and joined Bavaria and Wurtemberg in the formation of a new government known as the Confederation of the Rhine. The Confederacy acknowledged Napoleon as their "Protector" and promised to supply him with troops to carry on his wars.

Dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire, 1806. The Confederation of the Rhine put an end to the Holy Roman Empire, which had been in existence for a thousand years. Francis II, forced to renounce his sovereignty over the old

government, took the title of Francis I, Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary, only.

Trafalgar, October 21, 1805. But while Napoleon was defeating Austria and Russia, and making himself master of the Continent, the British navy dealt him a severe blow. His old enemy Admiral Nelson met the French and Spanish fleets off the coast of Spain, at Trafalgar. As the English cleared their decks for action, Nelson sent his memorable message to the fleet: "England expects every man to do his duty."

The Britons responded by almost annihilating their enemy. England was saved from invasion; she remained mistress of the seas. But she mourned the loss of her great admiral, who was killed in the fight.

The Bonapartes. After the battle of Austerlitz, Napoleon began to create kingdoms and appoint kings at will. Over Holland, which had been organized as the Batavian republic during the early part of the revolution, he placed his brother Louis as King. Louis had married Hortense, the daughter of Josephine, and their son was eventually to rule France as Emperor Napoleon III. Bonaparte made his brother Joseph King of Naples and Sicily. Murat, one of his generals, was made Duke of Berg; and Murat's wife, Caroline, sister of Napoleon, became a duchess. Later he made Joseph King of Spain, and appointed his brother Jerome (who agreed to divorce his American wife) King of Naples. What were mere titles of nobility to Napoleon Bonaparte—one time Jacobin and dreamer of Corsican liberty?



From the painting by Charles Lucy

LORD NELSON

The hero of the Battle of Trafalgar pictured in the cabin of the *Victory*.

Battles of Jena and Friedland. In 1806 the armies of France marched into Prussia and inflicted stinging defeats on the Prussian troops at the battles of Jena (yā'nä) and Auerstadt, after which the French entered Berlin. Napoleon then started for Poland, where the people hailed him as a deliverer. They hoped he would restore their lands and kingdoms, of which they had been robbed in the three partitions. He gave them much encouragement, and the following June led his armies against the Russians and defeated them at the battle of Friedland.

Treaty of Tilsit. The following month the Tsar of Russia, Alexander I, and Napoleon met on a raft in the Niemen River. After flattering each other upon their extraordinary abilities, they drew up and signed the Treaty of Tilsit (July 7-9). (1) All of the territory that Prussia had gained in the second and third partitions of Poland, as well as her possessions west of the Elbe River, were to be formed into the new kingdom of Westphalia. Brother Jerome was appointed King. (2) The Elector of Saxony was made a King and given sovereignty over the Grand Duchy of Warsaw—a small part of former Poland. Once more the Poles bowed to the will of greed and the creed of might. (3) Russia agreed to aid Napoleon in a Continental blockade against England. The Emperor of France, unable to defeat "the nation of shopkeepers" by the sword, decided to bring the British to terms by crippling their commerce.

The Continental System. Even before the Treaty of Tilsit, England had struck back at the prohibitive tariffs of Napoleon by declaring a blockade along the western coast of France. This meant that Great Britain, backed by her fleet, would forbid the trading vessels of any nation to enter France, and at the same time would destroy merchant ships leaving French ports. Six months later Bonaparte replied by his Berlin Decree. This forbade England to trade with any part of the Continent but left the trade open to neutral nations. The following year Great Britain issued an Order in Council, warning all neutral nations that before their vessels entered a French port they must first stop at a British port and pay a duty. Bonaparte thereupon issued another decree. And so the battle of decrees continued.

Results of the Continental System. Napoleon's Continental System hurt English trade, but it proved far more disastrous to the French Emperor. The Continent of Europe depended upon many of the products from Great Britain and her colonies. Bonaparte tried to offset this by encouraging his scientists to invent substitutes. The manufacture of beet sugar was one of the results, and the discovery of new processes of making dyes was another. But England smuggled ship after ship into the Continental Ports, and even Napoleon's army was equipped with English shoes and clothing. On the other hand, thousands of merchants on the Continent were ruined. They had enjoyed a fine export trade with England and the outside world; but so close did the British navy now maintain the blockade that their cargoes rotted in port. As long as Napoleon had overthrown the old petty despots, given the new governments constitutions, abolished serfdom, and established prosperity, the conquered people tolerated him. But they were not ready to uphold his ruinous blockade, and in the end they rose against him.

War of 1812 with England. This commercial war brought hard times to the merchants in the United States. Our ships were forbidden to trade with England, and were forbidden by England to trade with the Continent. Whenever they appeared on the high seas they were subject to search by both British and French navies. President Madison protested. Napoleon promised to desist. England refused, even going so far as to capture our sailors and force them to man her ships. On June 18, 1812, the Congress of the United States, led by Henry Clay and John C. Calhoun, declared war on Great Britain.

United States not Napoleon's Ally. In the War of 1812 the United States was not the ally of France. We were fighting our own war; we were demanding the freedom of the seas. While this war weakened England in her struggle with Napoleon, it did little to retard his impending fate. His Continental System had brought first Portugal, then Spain, and finally all Europe against him.

Napoleon Invades Portugal, 1808. Portugal refused to enforce the Continental System against England. Napoleon, with his subservient ally Spain, invaded the country and

dethroned the royal family of Braganza. They escaped to Brazil and did not return until after Napoleon's final defeat. King John's oldest son, Don Pedro, remained in Brazil as the prince regent. In 1822, during the Latin American revolutions, Brazil declared its independence of Portugal and Don Pedro was crowned Emperor. Brazil remained an Empire until 1889, when it became a republic.

The Spanish Revolt. In 1808, without consulting the Spanish people, Napoleon forced their King to resign and placed his brother Joseph on the throne. The people of Spain resented this. They were also enraged because Napoleon had captured the Pope and still held him a prisoner. Guerrilla bands rose against the French troops. The Duke of Wellington entered the peninsula with an English army. Joseph was driven from the throne and Napoleon became furious. He marched an army of 200,000 men into Spain and recaptured Madrid. But another uprising in Austria forced him to leave, and the English, Spanish, and Portuguese continued the Peninsula War. At St. Helena Napoleon declared it was the Spanish war that brought about his downfall.

Battle of Wagram. Napoleon administered a decisive defeat to the Austrians at Wagram (vā-grām) in May, 1809. He imposed another humiliating treaty upon these old enemies. He demanded the hand of the Austrian Emperor's daughter, Maria Louisa, in marriage. He desired a son and heir of royal blood, and since Josephine had borne him no children he ruthlessly divorced her. In April, 1810, Napoleon and Maria



MARIA LOUISA
For whom Napoleon divorced
Josephine.

Louisa were married, and the following year a son was born and given the title "King of Rome."

War with Russia, 1812. But the Continental System was playing havoc in Russia, and the Tsar, angered at other actions of Napoleon, refused to enforce it. Bonaparte decided to teach Alexander I a lesson. Gathering an army of over a half-million men, Napoleon entered Russia in June, 1812. He planned to conquer Russia in about two years, and then march south and take possession of India. But his plans failed. In the first place the July rains were against him, and his army stumbled and splashed over the mud-soaked roads. His commissary wagons were delayed. Horses and men, improperly nourished, sickened and died. Thousands more succumbed to the intense heat of August. Day after day the Tsar's army kept retreating, drawing Napoleon farther and farther away from his supplies, and devastating the country as they went. The Russians were playing the same game that Peter the Great had played before the battle of Pultowa (Chapter XXV). By the middle of August, on the borders of a wasted country, Napoleon had lost 100,000 men and not a blow had been struck.

Retreat from Moscow. In the early part of September the Russians made a stand at Borodino (bŏ'rŏ-dyê-nô'). After a terrible conflict, in which 70,000 men on both sides lost their lives, the Muscovites retreated in good order. One week later Napoleon entered Moscow. The city, with the exception of a few thousand inhabitants, was deserted. The next day fires broke out, and in another week Moscow was in ashes. The Tsar had trapped Napoleon. The cold Russian winter was drawing near, and in October Bonaparte ordered a retreat. The Russian cavalry followed and attacked all stragglers. There was not enough food for the retreating army. Thousands of men died of hunger, thousands were frozen to death, thousands were killed by the ever lurking Cossack bands, and thousands committed suicide. Napoleon's retreat from Moscow was one of the greatest military tragedies of history. In the middle of December 20,000 ill-fed, half-clothed men crossed the Niemen and straggled into the Duchy of Warsaw. Only 20,000 survivors of the grand army of 600,000 remained to tell of the horrors of that seven

hundred mile retreat over the frozen snows of Russia. Their leader shared their sufferings as far as Lithuania before leaving the army.

Reforms in Germany. Napoleon hurried to Paris in disguise to raise another army. But the nations of Europe were rising. After the battle of Jena, in which Prussia had been humiliated and the people had shown such a lack of national spirit and patriotism, certain reforms were made. The leading men in this movement were Baron Stein and Prince Hardenberg (här'dën-bërk). If the people of Prussia were to be loyal to their government, these men argued, the masses must be happy and not oppressed. So serfdom was abolished, other reforms were carried out, and men were given a better chance in life.

Growth of Prussian Militarism. It was at this time that Prussia started to build its great military machine. By the Treaty of Tilsit Napoleon ordered that not more than 42,000 men should compose the Prussian army at any one time. This was done to weaken the enemies of the Emperor. The Prussians arranged a scheme by which they called 42,000 men into the army, and gave them a few months of strenuous training. These troops were then disbanded, sent home, and placed in the reserve. Their places were filled by 42,000 new recruits, and so the process continued until Prussia could mobilize in an emergency several hundred thousand fighting men. This was the beginning of a military system that spread over the Continent of Europe.

Battle of the Nations, 1813. Prussia was soon to need its reserves. In the summer of 1813 Napoleon, with an army composed largely of old men and young boys, arrived in Germany. The glamour and belief in Napoleon's invincibility had faded after the Russian campaign. All central Europe and England rose to meet this military scourge. Prussia joined the alliance and the allies met Napoleon at Leipzig. In a three days' battle known as the "Battle of the Nations" Bonaparte was decisively beaten.

Abdication of Napoleon. In November the allies offered to make peace with France, giving her the Rhine, the Alps, and the Pyrenees as her natural boundaries. Napoleon refused. Then the victorious nations crossed the Rhine, bent

on capturing the French capital. The Emperor put up a stubborn resistance, but in March, 1814, the allied armies entered Paris and Napoleon was forced to abdicate.

Bids Farewell to the "Old Guard." In the courtyard of Fontainebleau the fallen Emperor kissed the tri-color and bade farewell to his "Old Guard"—those faithful French soldiers who had followed him in campaign after campaign. There was hardly a dry eye in the ranks of those war-scarred veterans as their general departed.

Banished to Elba, April 11, 1814. Napoleon was permitted to retain his title and was given a large allowance. But hereafter he was to be content with ruling the little island of Elba, off the coast of Italy. Banished to Elba, and virtually a prisoner, the Corsican had one more spectacular act to play before St. Helena.

Return of the Bourbons. The allied powers had decided that the brother of Louis XVI should be King of France. The little son (Louis) of the former King had died in prison during the Reign of Terror. The new ruler assumed the title of Louis XVIII, but he was restricted in his power by a French constitution. It was also decided to allow France to retain her old boundaries of 1793. And then the Congress of Vienna started to change the Napoleonic map of Europe and make another to its own liking. The allies fell to quarreling among themselves, and the French were restless under the Bourbons. Napoleon, well informed of these things, as well as of the fact that the allies were discussing his further banishment, decided to leave Elba and regain his lost power.

Napoleon's Return from Elba. With about a thousand of his Old Guard who had accompanied him to his exiled kingdom, he evaded the British fleet and on March 1, 1815, landed in France. The King, hearing of his arrival, sent the Royalist troops to arrest him. Napoleon marched straight for Paris. The people along the route cheered him, and his ex-soldiers followed. The troops sent to capture him deserted the Bourbon ruler and joined his fast increasing army. Louis XVIII fled and Napoleon entered the capital in triumph. He gave the people a constitution with more liberty than he had ever allowed them before. The next "Hundred Days" were among the most momentous in Europe's political history.

Battle of Waterloo, June 18, 1815. The members of the Congress of Vienna ceased their petty disputes and united in the common cause of subduing forever this disturber of the peace. The Allied armies gathered. The Duke of Wellington assembled at Brussels, in Belgium, his English, Dutch, Belgian, and German contingents. Blücher (blü'kër), at the head of a Prussian army, was coming to the aid of Wellington. Napoleon decided to attack each army separately before they could unite. He encountered Blücher at Ligny (June 16) and forced the Prussians to retreat. He then turned his forces on Wellington (June 18) at the little town of Waterloo, in Belgium. From eleven o'clock in the morning until late afternoon the two armies battled. The French were fast overcoming the troops under Wellington when toward sundown a speck was seen in the distance. It grew larger and larger and soon the Prussians, led by Blücher, dashed to the aid of Wellington. These reënforcements spelled disaster for the French armies. Their ranks broke, they retreated, and their retreat became a rout. The star of Napoleon had set.

St. Helena. Bonaparte escaped from Paris and made his way to the coast. He had planned to go to America, but the British fleet was guarding the coast. With no chance for escape, Napoleon threw himself upon the mercy of the English. He surrendered to the commander of the British warship *Bellerophon*, and was banished to the rock of St. Hele'na, 1,300 miles off the coast of Africa. Heavily guarded, he spent much of his time fretting and writing his memoirs. He died in 1821 from cancer.

Modern Nationality. Despite Napoleon's despotism he had spread the revolutionary doctrine of France throughout Europe. In France he at least allowed the people to go through the forms of popular elections. He maintained the principle of equality before the law. Wherever he established the Code Napoleon serfdom and social inequality disappeared. Wherever the tri-color waved people became conscious of their personal rights. This new spirit of democracy and the desire for representative government mark the beginning of what is called modern nationality.

Napoleon and a World State. But Napoleon was no friend of nationalism. Like Alexander and Cæsar before him,

Napoleon foolishly believed in a world state resulting from conquest, founded on despotism, and ruled by a superman. All alike failed to grasp the vital truth that if ever a world state arrives it will emerge in a time of peace, rest on a basis of democracy and federation, and be governed by representatives chosen by the people who are to be governed.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. In what ways did Napoleon Bonaparte imitate Alexander Cæsar? Charlemagne?
2. Explain fully how the corruptness of the Directory affected United States history. Refer to John Adams' administration in any American history.
3. What reforms of Napoleon have lasted until the present time?
4. Napoleon was called a Justinian by lawyers and a Constantine by the clergy? Why?
5. How did Napoleon's desire for colonial power affect American history?
6. How did the Berlin and Milan Decrees and the British Orders in Council affect the history of the United States?
7. How did the Peninsular War affect the political history of Brazil?
8. In what way did the battle of Jena effect the social and military history of Prussia?
9. Why is the battle of Waterloo called decisive in world history?
10. Was Wellington solely responsible for the downfall of Napoleon?
11. What benefits resulted from the Continental System? What evils?

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Read topics in Webster's *Readings in Medieval and Modern History*, Chapters 32 and 33, which deal with Napoleon's mental characteristics, political ideas, personality, and place in history; also with Metternich's estimate of the man.

II. In Robinson's *Readings*, Chapters 37 and 38, can be found (1) the story of Napoleon's early life; (2) his Italian campaign; (3) his attitude toward Mohammedanism while in Egypt; (4) the crossing of the St. Bernard Pass and the battle of Marengo; (5) why the French people submitted to Bonaparte's rule; (6) his reforms; (7) fall of the Holy Roman Empire; (8) the Continental Blockade; (9) the retreat from Moscow; (10) the Prussian Reform Edict; (11) Napoleon at St. Helena.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

R. M. JOHN- STON (Ed.)	<i>The Corsican</i> (A diary of Napoleon's life in his own words)	Houghton
HERBERT FISHER	<i>Napoleon</i>	Holt
SOUTHEY	<i>Life of Nelson</i>	Longmans

HISTORICAL NOVELS

DICKENS	<i>Tale of Two Cities</i>	Scribner
HUGO	<i>Ninety-Three</i>	Little
HUNTINGTON	<i>His Majesty's Sloop "Diamond Rock"</i>	Houghton
ERCKMAN-CHATRIAN	<i>The Conscript</i>	Scribner
	<i>Waterloo</i>	Scribner
	<i>The Blockade</i>	Scribner

CHAPTER XXX

THE METTERNICH SYSTEM

The Metternich System. Austria emerged from the Napoleonic wars as the most influential power on the continent of Europe. This position was gained mainly through the diplomatic shrewdness of her chief minister, Prince Metternich (mět'ēr-nīk). He was the arch enemy of the French Revolution and the principles for which it stood. He was opposed to all forms of representative government, trial by jury, freedom of speech and of the press. He labored to restore the absolute power of kings and the old class privileges. As the minister of Francis II, and the real ruler of Austria, he had suppressed all democratic tendencies in that country. The Congress of Vienna, of which Metternich was the guiding mind, gave him an opportunity to force his system and ideas on the rest of the Continent.

Conservatives and Liberals. Europe had divided into two hostile political factions. The conservatives, led by Metternich, endeavored to restore the Old Régime. The liberals, composed mostly of the laboring classes, the merchants, and the college professors and students, fought to maintain or



From the painting by Sir Thomas Lawrence

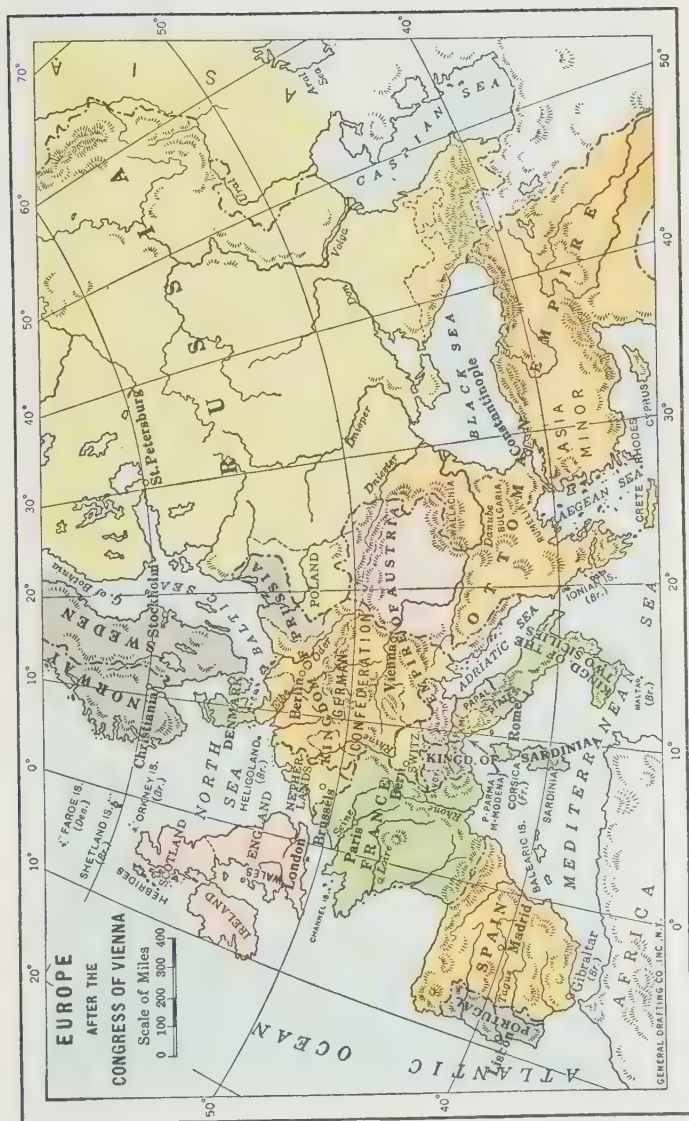
METTERNICH

acquire the new democracy and the new spirit of nationality. So well did Metternich dominate the political affairs of Europe from 1815 to 1848 that the period is sometimes called the Metternich Era. The story of this era is one of bitter conflict between the liberals and the conservatives.

Assembly of Sovereigns. In the Treaty of Paris (May 30, 1814) the allies established Louis XVIII on the throne of France. They deprived that country of its Napoleonic conquests and made

plans for redistributing those territories. They decided, however, to complete their plans at Vienna. All the rulers of Europe who had taken part in the war were invited either to attend in person or to send their personal representatives to the Austrian capital. It is well to note that this was to be a gathering of sovereigns and not of representatives of the people.

Congress of Vienna, 1814-1815. For ten months (September, 1814, to June, 1815) Vienna was the scene of royal splendor. Nearly all the titled heads of Europe were present, accompanied by their royal bodyguards and secretaries. The Tsar of Russia, the Emperor of Austria, the Kings of Prussia, Bavaria, and Denmark, and more than a hundred petty princes were there. The Duke of Wellington and Lord Castlereagh represented Great Britain; the shrewd and experienced diplomat Talleyrand represented France. Night after night this royal assemblage was entertained. Receptions, masques, and dinners followed each other in steady procession. In the banquet halls and ball rooms schemes were formed for the restoration of the Old Régime throughout the continent of Europe.





THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

Policy of the Congress. The Congress of Vienna was not a deliberating body, as its name would imply. The affairs of Europe were arranged by the four allies—Austria, Russia, Prussia, and England. The representatives of those powers assembled in secret sessions. After they had agreed upon some particular policy they would draw up a treaty and submit it to the delegates from the other countries, not for discussion but for ratification. These separate treaties were at length combined into one single document, which constituted the final act of the Congress. The authors of those treaties did not consider the welfare or desires of the people. They ignored all liberal ideas and national aspirations. They decided (whenever it suited their purpose) to restore deposed monarchs and establish old boundaries as they had been before the time of Napoleon. This was called by Talleyrand (tāl'ī-rānd) the principle of "legitimacy." In order to maintain the "balance of power" they commanded that millions of people be transferred from one sovereign to another, regardless of nationality. Thus a half dozen men sitting in secret meetings remapped Europe and attempted to turn back the wheels of progress. A half dozen autocrats—the real Congress of Vienna—imposed their narrow minded and selfish policy on the people of Europe; and posterity, even down to our own day, has suffered because of that act.

Sardinia. Acting on the principle of legitimacy, the Bourbon Kings were restored to the French and Spanish thrones. Savoy and Piedmont were returned to the King of Sardinia, who had been exiled by Napoleon. Genoa was added to his kingdom, and in this manner a buffer state was created between southeastern France and Austria.

The Netherlands. Catholic Belgium, despite the protests of its people, was annexed to Protestant Holland. The union thus formed was organized into the hereditary kingdom of the Netherlands, under the House of Orange. This established a strong state to the north of France.

Austria. In Italy, Austria recovered Milan and the Illyrian (ī-līr'ī-ăn) provinces along the Adriatic Sea. She also received Lombardy and Venetia to compensate her for giving up Belgium. This was known as the principle of "compensation." Through the influence of Austria in northern Italy,

Metternich dictated the policy for the entire peninsula. He insisted that the country be divided into petty states, and that nationality and liberalism be suppressed. Italy, he said, was to continue merely "a geographical expression." The Austrian possessions in Poland, acquired by the partitions, were regained.

Sweden. Sweden ceded Finland to Russia. And then to compensate Sweden, the Congress of Vienna took Norway from Denmark and annexed it to Sweden. The two countries remained at odds until 1905, when they agreed to separate peacefully.

Russia. Alexander I of Russia demanded the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, that had been created by Napoleon. Bonaparte, it will be recalled, had formed that state from the territories Austria and Prussia had seized from Poland during the partitions. Alexander planned to unite the Duchy of Warsaw with the Polish territories that he possessed. He desired to restore nationality and the old Kingdom of Poland. He intended to give the people a constitution and allow them parliamentary government. Poland was not to be a part of Russia, but the Tsar was to be their king.

Prussia. Alexander's arrangement was satisfactory to Frederick William III, King of Prussia, so long as he could be compensated for his losses in Poland. He therefore demanded the southern kingdom of Saxony and other territories. Russia agreed to stand by Prussia in these demands. Legitimacy didn't apply to the King of Saxony, they argued, since he had been the faithful ally of Napoleon.

Dissension—Talleyrand. England and Austria, however, opposed this plan. Neither of those countries desired to see the Tsar's power extended any farther into western Europe, and neither of them was willing to dethrone the King of Saxony. The four nations began quarreling. England and Austria even threatened to back up their claims by declaring war. The crafty Talleyrand, who up to this time had been considered more or less of an outsider, now saw his opportunity. It had been clearly understood that France was to have no say in the Congress of Vienna. But Talleyrand now sided with England and Austria. Those two countries, with France as an ally in case of war, would have an advantage

over Russia and Prussia. A few days later Talleyrand was able to write the following to Louis XVIII: "France might have stood alone in Europe without being in good relations with any one single power for half a century to come. But now, sire, the coalition [against her] is dissolved. . . . France is now in concert with two of the greatest powers. . . ."

The Compromise. It was during this period of discord at Vienna that Napoleon returned from Elba. The allies, as we have seen, quickly united to check the common danger, and speedily reached a compromise on the Russo-Prussian demands. The Tsar received a large portion of the Duchy of Warsaw. Prussia received about half of the Kingdom of Saxony and territory on the west bank of the Rhine. She was also given the Swedish province of Pomerania, which established for her a continual coast line along the Baltic.

Germanic Confederation. The Confederation of the Rhine formed by Napoleon was another problem for the Congress of Vienna to solve. By that union the German states had been reduced to thirty-eight. A few German patriots wished to unite these into a strong centralized government. But the sovereign princes of the different states would not consent to relinquish any of their powers. They were strongly supported by Metternich, who well knew that while he could control the many petty states, a strong united government would weaken his influence. Whatever Metternich supported at this time was pretty sure to be realized. So the numerous German states, including Prussia, were formed into a loose confederacy called the Germanic Confederation, under the presidency of Austria.

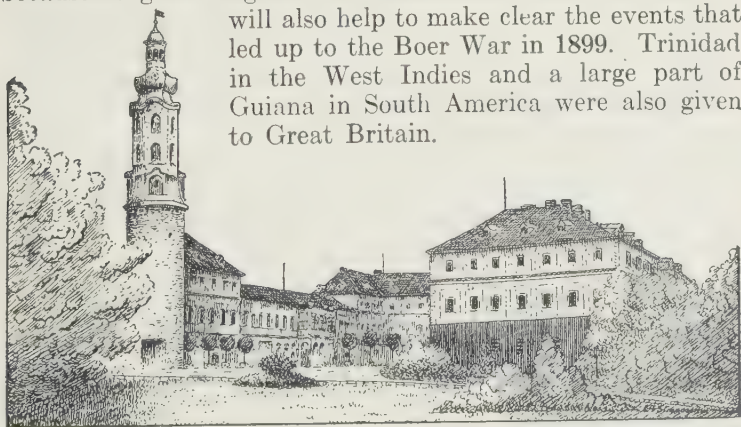
Fortunately for Germany, there were at this time other influences at work which made for national unity of spirit even in a time of political disunion. The latter part of the eighteenth century and the early part of the nineteenth cover the period of Germany's greatest literary achievement.

The Weimar Group. The intellectual center of Germany at this time was the little town of Weimar (vī'mär). The Duke of Weimar, when a lad, had had the poet Wieland (vē'lānt) for a tutor, and had come to manhood loving good literature and with somewhat democratic ideals. He invited

the poet Goethe (gû'tē) to come to Weimar, and made him a privy counselor. Herder and Schiller (shīl'ēr), two other poets, spent some years there. A court theater was supported, where the new poetic dramas could be presented. These dramas were filled with patriotism, liberty, religious toleration, and love of truth. The greatest of them is Goethe's *Faust*. Goethe began writing it when he was twenty-three, and finished it just before his death at eighty-three. This period of Germany's history has been compared to the Elizabethan Period in England and to the age of Pericles in Athens.

England. Such, in brief, is the manner in which the map of Europe was changed after Napoleon. The Congress of Vienna had created one grand hodgepodge. England was rewarded for her ceaseless struggle against France by accessions to her fast growing colonial empire. She received Heligoland (hēl'ī-gō-lānd) in the North Sea, and the Ionian Islands and Malta in the Mediterranean. She retained the island of Ceylon, which she had captured from Holland, the ally of Napoleon during the war; and also the Dutch territory in Africa known as Cape Colony—the old Portuguese Cape of Good Hope. This last is important to remember, because it gave England her foothold in South Africa. It

will also help to make clear the events that led up to the Boer War in 1899. Trinidad in the West Indies and a large part of Guiana in South America were also given to Great Britain.



GRAND DUCAL PALACE, WEIMAR

The intellectual center of Germany during the time of Goethe, Herder, and Schiller.

Second Treaty of Paris, November, 1815. The Congress of Vienna completed its work about a week before the battle of Waterloo. After that victory the allies again entered the French capital and drew up the second Treaty of Paris. Prussia was in favor of dismembering France, but the other allies refused to consider the suggestion. The treaty provided that the French should give up small portions of their territories, return the works of art which Napoleon had stolen from the European galleries, and pay a small indemnity. Upon the principle of "legitimacy" Louis XVIII retained his position as King. France once more found herself ostracized by the allies.

The Holy Alliance, 1815. Two other treaties were signed at Paris that were to have an important bearing on the future history of Europe. Both were intended to preserve international peace. The first of these was the Holy Alliance, whose author was the mystical and sentimental Tsar Alexander I of Russia. The three powers Russia, Prussia, and Austria agreed to be "guided by the sublime truths taught by the eternal religion of God our Savior." The Holy Alliance further stated that those sovereigns would "adopt no other rule of conduct, either in the government of their respective countries, or in their political relations with other governments, than the precepts of that holy religion, the precepts of justice, charity, and peace." The treaty expressed lofty ideals, but the signatory powers failed to live up to them. Metternich signed because he considered it expedient to please the Tsar. He secretly ridiculed it. Although he desired peace, he thought that he had a better and more practical plan.

The Quadruple Alliance, 1815. Metternich was convinced that the revolutionary tendencies of the people were the cause of all the wars and bloodshed of the past twenty-five years. It never seemed to dawn upon him that seventeenth century despotism applied to the people of the nineteenth century might also be a cause. Metternich could see but one way to maintain peace, and that was for the allied powers to suppress all democratic movements by force. Within a month after signing the Holy Alliance he succeeded in forming the Quadruple Alliance, composed of Austria, Russia, Prussia, and Great Britain. Those countries bound

themselves to meet from time to time, to discuss and maintain the peace of Europe, and to preserve the territorial and political situation as arranged by the Congress of Vienna.

Policy of Armed Intervention. Metternich called four great Congresses within the next seven years. He adopted a policy of armed intervention in all countries clamoring for democracy. He ordered armies and engines of war to crush all liberal movements. France joined the Quadruple Alliance in 1818, and England (as we shall see) withdrew four years later.

Spanish Cortes and Constitution of 1812. The people of Spain were among the first to challenge the Metternich system. The Spanish patriots during the Peninsula War refused to acknowledge the government set up by Napoleon. In the name of their King, Ferdinand VII, who was held a prisoner by Napoleon, they established a new government. They organized a representative assembly called the Cortes, and in 1812 adopted a constitution based upon that of the French limited monarchy of 1791.

Tyranny of Ferdinand VII. Ferdinand was restored to his throne by the Congress of Vienna. Ungrateful to his subjects, who had stood by him during his exile, Ferdinand was only mindful of the fact that they had limited his powers. He abolished the Cortes and declared the constitution null and void; he persecuted thousands of liberals, revived the Inquisition, censored all books and papers, and restored feudal privileges. Having, as he thought, crushed democracy at home, the King now turned his attention to his revolting colonies in South America. They too had opposed Napoleon and sided with Ferdinand. But the restrictive commercial policy of Spain, and their brief taste of freedom, tempted the colonies to retain their liberty.

Simon Bolivar, 1783-1830. The opposition of Latin America, first to Napoleon and later to the despotic Ferdinand, was led by Simon Bolivar (bŏl'ī-vār), called the "Washington of South America." Bolivar was born in Venezuela, and when the armies of Napoleon invaded Spain he was studying law in Madrid. He hastened home and organized the patriots of Venezuela. In the spring of 1810 Argentina and Chile also revolted. Within a few months the three colonies were vir-



SIMON BOLIVAR

The Liberator of South America.

tually independent. For the next twenty years Simon Bolivar's life was one of triumphs and defeats, wealth and poverty, honors and disappointments. In 1828 he was President of what is now Venezuela, Panama, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, and Bolivia. He had liberated all of those countries, and the last mentioned was named in his honor.

Revolution in Spain, 1820. But while these revolts were taking place among Spain's American colonies, the liberals at home had not remained

passive. Ferdinand had sent his soldiers on troop ship after troop ship to America to crush Bolivar and other rebel leaders. In battle and among the fever-ridden swamps the royal troops died by the thousands. Dissatisfied themselves with the despotism and tyranny of Ferdinand, they were not enthusiastic about fighting simply to strengthen his authority. In 1820 one of the regiments refused to embark for America, and decided to fight for its own liberties. Other regiments joined it, and the King was forced to restore the Constitution of 1812 and to call the Cortes. A copy of the constitution was posted in every city throughout the kingdom.

Revolts in Southern Europe. Immediately following the revolt in Spain, Portugal demanded a constitution from its King. The following year, as we have seen, Brazil became independent of the mother country. From Spain and Portugal the liberal movement spread across the Mediterranean into Italy. The King of Naples was compelled to grant his subjects a constitution. The next year (1821) the people of Piedmont, part of the kingdom of Sardinia, rebelled; they too desired a constitutional government. And then, to the

embarrassment of Austria, her own Italian territories demanded reforms. •

Quintuple Alliance. Metternich had called the Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1818. France was represented at this meeting, and the Quadruple Alliance became a Quintuple Alliance.

The "Holy Allies." The revolt in Naples, according to Metternich, demanded immediate attention. He called for another Congress, to meet at Troppau (1820). Austria, Russia, and Prussia bound themselves to stamp out all liberal movements in Europe, "by peaceful means or if need be by arms." These were the same three powers that had signed the Holy Alliance, five years before. The liberals now called them the Holy Allies. England and France did not sign the declaration of Troppau (trôp'ou). A few months later the three Holy Allies met for a third time at Laibach (lî'bäk).

Conservative Victories in Italy. Immediately after the meeting at Laibach, Austria sent an army into Naples. The constitutional government was overthrown and the King again permitted to enjoy absolute authority. Another army of 80,000 men was ordered by Metternich into Piedmont, and that rebellion was cruelly crushed. Urged on by their victories in Naples and Piedmont, the Holy Allies determined to aid Ferdinand VII of Spain. The Spanish Cortes and constitution were to be abolished and absolutism was to be restored.

Congress of Verona. Following the usual order, another Congress was held, this time at Verona (1822). Austria, Russia, and Prussia now found a faithful supporter in the French representative. England, however, protested against this policy of interfering with representative government. The Duke of Wellington bluntly told the envoy from France that "it was constitutions that made kings." But England's protest had little influence on the continental powers. The secret Treaty of Verona was a revision of the Holy Alliance, and was to play an important part in the affairs of Europe, South America, and the United States.

Absolutism Restored in Spain. France at this time was controlled by conservatives, and they offered to send an army into Spain in the name of the Congress of Verona. This offer

having been accepted, the French troops marched across the Pyrenees and soon overcame all opposition. Ferdinand, supported by France and the Congress of Verona, was restored as absolute monarch of Spain. All forms of representative government were abolished, thousands of liberals were shot, and thousands more were thrown into prison. For the next ten years Ferdinand VII was the most absolute and despotic King of Europe.

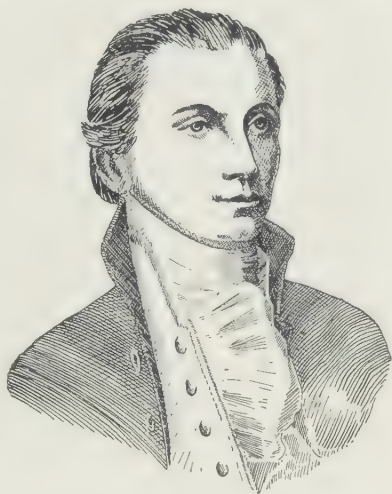
The Egotism of Metternich. After this tyrannical procedure against the Spanish people Metternich rose to the height of his fanaticism. "God seems willing," he said, "to use me as his instrument to restore order to Europe." He now determined, with the aid of the European coalition, to regain for Ferdinand Spain's former American colonies. But in this venture he met the opposition of Great Britain and the United States.

England Opposes Interference in South America. There were in England many people who sympathized with the liberal movements throughout Europe. Great Britain itself was a limited monarchy and enjoyed representative government. Her people had blazed the trail in that respect almost two hundred years before. But what vitally interested the English merchants was the fact that they would lose the South American trade if Spain recovered its colonies and restored the old restrictive commercial policy. George Canning, the British foreign secretary, now proposed that the United States and England should unite to offset the plan of the Holy Alliance to interfere in the government of Latin America.

The Monroe Doctrine, 1823. The United States was opposed to European domination, not knowing where it would stop. But as her policy so far had been to avoid entangling alliances, President Monroe decided to act alone. In his message to Congress, December, 1823, President Monroe challenged the attempt of the European powers to interfere with republican governments on the American continent. The message read in part: "We owe it, therefore, to candor and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and those powers to declare, that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion

of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power we have not interfered and shall not interfere. But with the Governments who have declared their independence and maintained it, and whose independence we have, on great consideration and on just principles acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them, or controlling in any other manner their destiny, by any European power in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States." This was the reply of the United States flung across the Atlantic to those despots who at the Congress of Verona had sworn to suppress the system of representative government. The Holy Alliance realized that this doctrine would be backed up by the British navy, and decided not to interfere in South America. However, without any backing the United States, on more occasions than one, has upheld the principles of the Monroe Doctrine.

The Balkan Revolutions. The Monroe Doctrine was the first of several attacks that were eventually to undermine the Metternich system. During this period the Balkan states were rising against the despotic rule of the Turkish Sultan. After several years of fighting, Serbia gained its partial independence in 1817. The Serbs were given autonomy and established their capital at Belgrade. They were still considered a part of the Turkish Empire, and were compelled to pay tribute to the Sultan. Four years later, Christian peo-



JAMES MONROE

Fifth President of the United States, 1817-1825. His Presidential Message of 1823 is known as the Monroe Doctrine.

ples in Moldavia (mōl-dā'vī-a) and Wallachia (wō-lā'kī-ā) (modern Rumania) began an eight-year struggle against their Mohammedan oppressors.

Metternich Endeavors to Aid Turkey. These rebels had counted on aid from Russia. They held the same religious beliefs as the Russians, and many of the people in Wallachia and Moldavia were of the same slavic origin. Besides this, Turkey was the great political enemy of Russia. But Metternich influenced the Tsar Alexander to keep out of the conflict and so the Turks easily put down this first revolt. The Austrian minister then imprisoned the Greek leader for seven years, and went so far as to seek aid from the European powers to restore Turkish absolutism in the Balkans.

Europe Aroused. But the War of Independence in Greece had only begun. There were several reasons why the people of Europe should sympathize with the Greeks. To all liberals and patriots they were an oppressed people fighting for liberty. To all Christians of every creed they appeared as modern crusaders. The war continued with savage cruelty on both sides. Adventurers and patriots from European nations volunteered in the Greek armies. Sentiment for Greece was aroused in England by that stirring lyric, Lord Byron's *Isles of Greece*. Byron did more than write; he gave his life fighting for the Greek cause.

Battle of Navarino, 1827. The Sultan enlisted the aid of his Egyptian subjects, and in 1827 Mohammedan armies were overrunning the Greek peninsula. Thousands of Christians were sent to Egypt as slaves. The Tsar Alexander had died in 1825, and the new ruler, Nicholas I, refused to listen to Metternich. In July, 1827, Russia, France, and England decided to aid Greece. The allied fleets decisively defeated the Turkish squadron in the harbor of Navarino (nä'vä-rē'nō).

Treaty of Adrianople, 1829. In the meantime the Russian army had battled its way almost to the gates of Constantinople. The Sultan was forced to sue for peace. In the Treaty of Adrianople, 1829, Turkey acknowledged the independence of Greece, and Otto of Bavaria became ruler of the new Greek kingdom. The autonomy of Serbia was reaffirmed and that of Wallachia and Moldavia established. Georgia,

a Greek Catholic country south of the Caucasus Mountains, was annexed to Russia.

The July Revolution in France, 1830. The year following the Treaty of Adrianople the French liberals dealt a blow at the pet ideas of Metternich. They brought about what is called the July (1830) Revolution in France. In 1824 Louis XVIII died and was succeeded by his younger brother, the Count of Artois, who ruled as Charles X. The new King was sixty-seven years old. From the time he had gathered the Emigré nobles on the borders of France (Chapter XXIX) until the downfall of Napoleon, almost twenty-five years later, he had lived in exile. It was said of him that during those years he had "learned nothing and forgotten nothing."

Reactionary Measures of Charles X. One of the first acts of Charles X was to have his subservient legislature vote nearly a billion francs to repay the Emigrant nobles for the property they had lost during the Revolution. Through his minister he announced that he intended to restore the Old Régime. He dismissed the Chamber of Deputies, which had strongly objected to his plans, but the people at the next election returned a large majority of liberals to the lower house. The King then issued a royal decree dissolving the new Chamber of Deputies. On the same day he ordered a strict censorship of the press, and by another decree established a new electoral law which disfranchised more than 75,000 voters.

Success of the Revolution. The next day armed workmen, students, and old soldiers gathered in the streets of Paris. Once more the populace was aroused. The angry crowds set up the cry, "Down with the Bourbons!" In the narrow, crooked streets of the city the revolutionists tore up the cobblestone pavements and erected barricades. For three days the Royalist troops, in a half-hearted way, endeavored to restore order. But the insurgents fought desperately. On July 31, the tricolor of France again replaced the white flag of the Bourbons and waved triumphantly over the city of Paris. The aged Lafayette took charge of a provisional government. Charles X fled to England, leaving orders that his grandson should succeed him. But the people of France were in no humor to meet the wishes of their dethroned King.



A STREET BARRICADE DURING THE 1830 REVOLUTION

France a Limited Monarchy under Louis Philippe. Many liberals desired a republic, but they were overruled by the influential and wealthy bourgeoisie, who had gained the support of the Republican leader, Lafayette. Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, a cousin of Charles X, was offered the crown by the Chamber of Deputies. The new "Citizen King," or "Barricade King" as Metternich called him, pledged his support to the French constitution and promised to protect the liberties of his people.

Spread of the Revolutionary Movement. Metternich was given no opportunity to suppress the representative government in France. Within a few months after the success of the revolution in France in 1830, revolutions broke out in the Netherlands, Italy, Poland, and the Germanic Confederation.

Independence of Belgium, 1831. The people of Belgium had always resented their forced annexation to Holland by the Congress of Vienna. They differed from the Dutch in nationality, language, and religion. When laws were enacted which tended to increase Dutch influence throughout the Netherlands, the dissatisfied Belgians became more irritated and finally rebelled. They demanded complete separation from Holland, and this demand was favored by Great Britain

and France. With the aid of those countries, Belgium in 1831 became an independent kingdom and Leopold of Saxe-Coburg became their first King.

Neutrality of Belgium Guaranteed. Neither Metternich nor Russia was able to interfere, because of revolutions in their own countries. Belgium was to remain "an independent and perpetually neutral state," that is, it was not to be attacked by any foreign nation and was not to wage war against other countries except in self-defense. In 1839 Great Britain, France, Russia, Prussia, and Austria signed an agreement guaranteeing this neutrality of Belgium.

Poland. The revolution of 1830 extended to Poland, Italy, and Germany. The Tsar, in a cruel and bloody war, subdued the Poles and abolished their constitution. Thousands of Polish patriots were executed or exiled, and Poland became a Russian province. In Italy and the German states insurrections were put down by the Austrian armies. However, the year 1830 had been in many respects a disastrous one for the forces of absolutism.

Parties in France. The reign of Louis Philippe was marked by much discontent in France. In the first place there was a strong monarchist party, called the "Legitimists," which desired the return of Charles X and his heirs. Another party, known as the Bonapartists, wished to restore the heirs of Napoleon and reëstablish an empire. A third group was composed of Republicans, who resented the restoration of the monarchy after the July Revolution. All of these parties hated Louis Philippe, and on more than one occasion attempts had been made to assassinate him.

Pretended Democracy. The "Citizen King," surrounded by these political enemies, endeavored to cater to the people. Unaccompanied, he walked the streets of Paris. He chatted and drank with the workingmen. He sent his sons to the public schools and permitted them to mingle with the sons of the wealthy merchants, manufacturers, and bankers. But at heart Louis Philippe was an aristocrat. He refused to extend the suffrage to more than 200,000 people, thereby permitting the influential bourgeoisie to control the government. When the excuse was given that only the wealthy and educated classes were fit to govern, the proletariat became the



LOUIS PHILIPPE

unrelenting enemy of Louis Philippe and his so-called capitalist government. His reign marked the beginning of the anarchist and socialist movements in France, both of which were to play an important part in the coming revolution of 1848.

Proudhon and His Anarchist Theory. In 1840 a Frenchman named Proudhon (prōō'-dōn') wrote a book in which he made an attack on all forms of existing governments and on the private ownership of property. He held that these two institutions were the cause of most of the misery and sorrow in the world, and that therefore both should be abolished. Thereafter—so went this beautiful theory—men would voluntarily live industrious, orderly, peaceful, and happy lives, free from political or economic restraint.

Louis Blanc and the Social Democrats. During the same year another Frenchman, Louis Blanc (blän), published his *Organization of Labor*. Blanc did not believe in abolishing governments. But he advocated that the present capitalistic system, by which the rich factory

owners received a large and unfair percentage of profits at the expense of the laborers, should be changed. His plan was for the government to own the industries and have the workingmen control them. All laborers were to receive equal wages, and at the end of the year divide the profits among themselves. A certain amount of money was to be used to aid all the needy,

sick, and injured workmen. This theory appealed to thousands of exploited workers in France, and they organized a new political party called the Social Democrats. It was the only party, at that time, that considered the welfare of the masses.

Louis Philippe Abdicates, 1848. As the opposition to Louis Philippe grew stronger he, in return, became more obstinate in resisting reform. In February, 1848, the Republicans and Socialists were forbidden to hold a banquet and parade which they had arranged. The next day armed mobs threw up barricades, invaded the Assembly, and marched through the streets crying, "Long live the Republic!" "Down with the Bourbons!" Louis Philippe soon fled from Paris. Disguised, and assuming the name of Mr. Smith, he sought refuge in England. A provisional government was again established and preparations were made for another republic.

The Paris Insurrection, June, 1848. For a short time the Socialists under Louis Blanc enjoyed much power in the provisional government. One hundred thousand unemployed men were put to work at two francs a day, performing all sorts of tasks, many of which were useless. Plans were made to take over the industries; but in the general elections of 1848 the Social Democrats lost control in the Assembly. A majority of the French people in the country at large were of the agricultural class, and little concerned about the industrial workers. The Socialists tried to overthrow the new Assembly, but were overcome by the National Guard. When the Assembly discharged the hundred thousand workmen employed by the Socialists, a bloody insurrection resulted. Within three days more than ten thousand people were killed. Once more the French capital desired peace and order, and once again a Bonaparte appeared on the scene.

The Second Republic, 1848. The constitution of the second French Republic provided for the selection of a President for a four-year term by vote of the people. The returns showed an overwhelming majority for Louis Napoleon, son of Louis Bonaparte and Hortense Beauharnais. Like his illustrious uncle, the new President was an adventurer. He pretended to be a champion of democracy. On several occasions he had conspired against the government of Louis

Philippe, and had been a prisoner of state and an exile. Now his one great ambition was realized—he was at the head of the French government.

The Second Empire, 1852. Louis Napoleon soon broke faith with the people and became a political despot and scheming war lord. On December 2, 1852, he succeeded in establishing a second French Empire, by popular vote, and was himself crowned as Emperor Napoleon III. (The son of Napoleon I and Maria Louisa of Austria had died.)

The Revolution of 1848. The apparent success of the French Revolution in February, 1848, encouraged the liberals throughout Europe to rise against oppression. More than a dozen distinct revolutions occurred that year. The Kings of Spain, Holland, Denmark, and Sweden were forced to grant their subjects new constitutions. But it was the revolts in the Austrian Empire and in the other countries influenced by Metternich in which the struggle was most intense.



LOUIS KOSSUTH

Louis Kossuth. On March 3, 1848, Louis Kossuth (kösh'oot), a fiery patriot of Hungary, rose in the Hungarian Diet and denounced the feudal and despotic rule of the nobility in that country. He delivered an eloquent and bitter attack against Austrian tyranny. The speech was translated into German and read by the students and workers in Vienna.

Flight of Metternich.

Just ten days from the time that Kossuth delivered his speech the populace of Vienna rose in revolt and demanded a representative government. They too erected barricades, as the Parisians had done. They marched through the streets crying "Down with Metternich!" The old gray-haired minister became defiant. "Forty years," he said, "I

have served my country. I have never yielded to an insurrection, nor will I now." But a few days later he fled from the city in a laundry cart, and in disguise made his way to England. The despotic Metternich system had failed to prove a cure for revolutions.

Hungary and Bohemia. Shortly after this the Austrian Emperor granted his people a constitution and universal suffrage. He bestowed the same rights on the people of Hungary and on the Czechs of Bohemia, allowing each country to elect its own independent parliament. But at this point Tsar Nicholas I became alarmed. He feared that the partial independence of Hungary and Bohemia would influence the dissatisfied Poles to rise against Russia. So he sent his troops to the aid of Austria and in midsummer the army of Kossuth, then President of Hungary, was trapped between the Russian and Austrian forces and almost annihilated. Kossuth fled and later visited the United States. Hungary again became an Austrian province. The liberal government in Bohemia was also suppressed. In the course of these insurrections the Austrian Emperor Ferdinand I abdicated in favor of his nephew, Francis Joseph I, who was destined to rule until 1916.

Emigration to the United States. The people in Italy and in the German states took part in the revolutions of 1848. But the revolts in those countries were put down for the time being. Thousands of their people, especially the Germans, emigrated to the United States between the years 1840 and 1854. There they sought not only political freedom but an opportunity to better their economic condition. There was a great deal of industrial unrest in Europe during this period. Workmen were forced to labor for long hours at small wages, and to compete with women and children in the factories. They were barely able to eke out an existence, and they saw no hope in the future for themselves or for their children.

Karl Marx. It was during these years in Germany that Karl Marx (märks), one of the founders of modern Socialism, appealed to the proletariat to rise and overthrow the capitalistic system. Of this movement, which gained very few followers at first but whose challenge to unfair capitalistic methods was in a few years to become a world issue, we shall tell in a later Epoch.

The dream of a united Italy and a united Germany was to be realized in 1870, and that will be the theme of the next chapter.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Name and explain three ways in which the Congress of Vienna was detrimental to the future peace of Europe.
2. Compare the despotism of Napoleon I with that of Metternich.
3. In what way did the Holy Alliance and the Congress of Vienna affect the history of the United States? Explain fully.
4. Why was Russia interested in freeing the Balkan States from Turkey?
5. What was the difference between the anarchist theory of Proudhon and the socialist theory of Louis Blanc?
6. Why did the Social Democrats fail to hold the government in 1848? What was impracticable about their plan of supplying everyone with work?
7. How did the political revolutions of 1848 affect the history of the United States?
8. In what ways would the emigrant laborers have enjoyed better opportunities in America than in Europe at the middle of the nineteenth century?
9. Compare the 1830 Revolution in France with the 1688 Revolution in England. Contrast the attitude of Charles X with that of James II, both before and after the revolutions.
10. What was the essential idea of nationalism during this period?
11. Compare the formation of the Greek and Belgian Kingdoms. Were either of these kingdoms the choice of the native peoples?

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. From Robinson's *Readings*, Vol. II, Chapters XXXIX and XL—Europe after the Congress of Vienna—report on the revolutions in France, Germany, Greece, Belgium, and Italy.

II. Prepare short biographies of (1) Simon Bolivar, (2) Louis Kossuth, (3) Napoleon III, (4) Prince Metternich, (5) Louis Philippe, (6) Lord Byron.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

TURNER	<i>Europe 1789-1920</i>	Doubleday
LATANÉ	<i>From Isolation to Leadership</i>	Doubleday
HAYES	<i>Political and Social History of Modern Europe</i>	Macmillan
MALLESON	<i>Metternich</i>	Lippincott

CHAPTER XXXI

NINETEENTH CENTURY NATIONALISM

Italy after the Congress of Vienna. So far as the short-sighted map-makers of that royal assemblage, the Congress of Vienna, were concerned, Italy became a mere "geographical expression." Lombardy and Venetia, including the populous and historic cities of Milan and Venice, were annexed to the Austrian Empire. To the south of Lombardy, the people of Parma, Modena (mô'dâ-nă), and Tuscany were governed by Austrian princes and subject to the tyranny of Austria. South of Venetia, cutting diagonally across central Italy and including the city of Rome, were the territories known as the Papal States. These were under the jurisdiction of the Pope. The southern part of the peninsula, comprising Naples and the island of Sicily, formed the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies. There a Bourbon King, despotic and treacherous, held his position with the aid of Austrian troops. In all of Italy there was but one independent state. That was the Kingdom of Sardinia, which included Savoy, Nice, Genoa, the island of Sardinia, and the important province of Piedmont. The city of Turin, in Piedmont, was the capital. In this little kingdom, ruled by the House of Savoy, the patriots of Italy were to center their dreams of freedom and national unity.

Oppressed Italy—the Carbonari. During these early years after the Congress of Vienna the people of Italy, dis-united and therefore weakened, were unable to free themselves from the oppressive Austrian yoke. Men and women who complained about the excessive taxes and other harsh measures were reported by Austrian spies and imprisoned, flogged, or exiled. Any sign of an uprising was quickly and cruelly crushed by the Austrian armies. But throughout the peninsula there were Italian patriots ever ready to challenge the tyranny of Austria and fight for a united Italy. In the absence of any one strong leader or powerful state around which they could rally, and because of the extensive spy system and "iron heel" of the Austrian military machine, the Italians were forced to organize numerous secret societies.



ITALY AFTER THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

The map shows that although Italy might at this time be used as a geographical term it had no political significance.

The most influential of these was the Carbonari (kär-bō-nä'rē) (charcoal burners), which endeavored to keep alive the spirit of independence and national unity. The unsuccessful revolutions of 1820 and 1830 had been led by the members of that society.

Three Parties in Italy. The Carbonari had no constructive plan for united Italy. On this point the people of Italy themselves were not agreed. There was one party whose members desired a constitutional monarchy, under the King

of Sardinia. Another party wished to form a confederation of the Italian states, and have the Pope rule as President. A third group wanted a republic. This group had been organized in 1831, by the patriot Mazzini (mät-sē'nē), as a secret society called "Young Italy."

"Young Italy." Before two years had passed, 60,000 enthusiastic young men, all under forty years of age (for that was one of the rules for membership), had joined the order. Mazzini reminded his followers of their common language and of the glorious achievements of their fathers in the past. Young Italy adopted the motto "God and the people." They kept alive the spirit of insurrection throughout the land. They stood ready to suffer all sorts of hardships, and even death, to rouse the people of Italy to drive the hated Austrians from their shores and to establish a republic.

Joseph Mazzini. Mazzini was an enemy of all monarchical governments. In 1834 he entered into an unsuccessful plot against Charles Albert, the Sardinian King, who at that time was an absolute monarch. For his part in this affair the founder of Young Italy was forced to spend most of his life as an exile in England. Italy did not become a republic as Mazzini desired. To many Italians he appeared impractical and unreasonable. But the patriotism which his society kindled was a big factor in the final unification of Italy.



MAZZINI
Founder of the Secret Society
"Young Italy."

Pope Pius IX. Those people who favored a confederacy, and looked to the papacy for the realization of their dreams, were greatly encouraged in 1846. Pius IX became Pope

during that year, and he immediately pardoned all political offenders in the Papal States and introduced governmental reforms. Many Italians now saw in the Pope a new champion of nationalism. Catholic patriots urged Pius IX to become the leader in a movement to unite the Italian states into a confederation.

Constitutions of 1848. The liberal actions of the Pope in his own territories encouraged the people of Naples to revolt against their despotic and imbecile King, Ferdinand II. In January, 1848, Ferdinand was forced to grant his subjects in the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies a constitution. This victory in southern Italy inspired the people in the northern states. Within a few months constitutional governments were established in Tuscany, the Papal States, and the Kingdom of Sardinia.

Revolution of 1848 in Italy. In the spring of the same year news reached Italy of the revolution in France, of the Hungarian revolt led by Kossuth, and best of all of the overthrow and flight of Metternich. A wave of enthusiasm spread throughout the peninsula. The people in Lombardy and Venetia revolted and expelled the Austrian troops. Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, declared war on Austria. The Pope, the Grand Duke of Tuscany, and the King of the Two Sicilies promised their hearty support. For a moment the freedom of Italy from the Austrian tyrants seemed assured.

Italy Divided. A large Austrian army entered Lombardy and Venetia. The rulers in the south of Italy, including the King of Naples and the Pope, became alarmed and refused to send any considerable aid to the King of Sardinia. Ferdinand II of Naples, known as "King Bomba" because he had ordered a cruel bombardment of several revolting cities, was an unrelenting despot. He was only too glad to hinder, in any possible way, the little Sardinian army in its struggle for Italian independence. Pius IX feared that his active participation against Catholic Austria would cause a schism in the church. Mazzini returned from exile and assumed the leadership of the republican party. He and his followers felt that a triumphant Italy led by Charles Albert would destroy all their hopes for a republic, and they refused for that reason to give them their whole hearted cooperation.

So at this critical period, when all Italians should have presented a united front, Italy stood divided.

Garibaldi, 1807-1882. In the early summer of 1848, with his army of Piedmontese, which had been joined by volunteers from all the Italian states, the King of Sardinia laid siege to the city of Mantua in Lombardy. One evening a man appeared at the camp of Charles Albert and asked for an audience with the King. That man was Giuseppe Garibaldi (gär-ê-bäl'dē), destined to become the greatest guerrilla leader in the annals of modern Europe and the military idol of the Italian people. On the shores of the Black Sea he had joined the society of Young Italy. In 1834 he had taken part, with Mazzini, in that unsuccessful revolution against Charles Albert. Garibaldi was condemned to death, but made his escape and eventually landed in South America. There he remained for fourteen years. During that time he took part in several revolutionary movements, and the fame of Garibaldi and his "Italian Legion" spread to Europe. But the liberty for which the exiled general dreamed most of all was the freedom of his fatherland from Austrian rule. And it was during the revolutions of 1848, despite the sentence of death that hung over his head, that General Garibaldi appeared at Mantua. He offered his services to Charles Albert—not to the republicans, it is well to note—in the Italian war for freedom.



GIUSEPPE GARIBALDI

With Victor Emmanuel II, and Count Cavour, he was instrumental in the unification of Italy.

Charles Albert Refuses Garibaldi's Aid. The King received his exiled subject heartily, and complimented him on

his South American adventures. But upon the flimsy excuse that he lacked authority, Charles Albert politely refused Garibaldi's aid. Undaunted, the general hastened to Milan where he was received with enthusiasm by the Milanese. He was put in charge of the defense of the city, and 30,000 volunteers rallied to his standard.

Defeat of the Sardinian Army at Custozza. Charles Albert was a poor general. In July, 1848, his army was defeated at Custozza. He retreated toward Milan, but the people of that city refused to receive him. The followers of Mazzini forced him to flee for his life. Had the Italians been able to drop their petty political differences, the history of the revolution of 1848 might have been different. As it is, the story is a short one.

Austrian Triumphs. In the latter part of the year Pope Pius IX. condemned constitutional governments and the Italians' fight for national unity and fled to Naples, where he sought the protection of King Bomba. In February, 1849, Mazzini organized the Roman Republic. In March, the army of Charles Albert was defeated at Novara, in Piedmont. He had already surrendered Milan to Austria and was now forced to abdicate in favor of his son, Victor Emmanuel II. Everywhere the Austrian armies were victorious, and the Emperor regained his Italian provinces. Those rulers in Italy who had granted constitutions, except in Sardinia, revoked them.

French Troops Occupy Rome. Louis Napoleon, hoping to gain the favor of his Catholic subjects, sent French troops to Rome to overthrow the Republic and reinstate the Pope. Garibaldi, who had now joined the republicans, pleaded with Mazzini to allow him to strike at the French immediately; but Mazzini and his colleagues could not believe that Louis Napoleon would attack a sister republic. While the French President trifled with their faith he kept sending reinforcements into Rome. Finally the French attacked the city, and despite the desperate defense conducted by Garibaldi, the foreign army entered Rome. Pope Pius returned and Garibaldi fled.

Pursued by French, Austrian, and Neapolitan troops, he finally reached the little island of Caprera (kă-prâ'ră), off the northeast coast of Sardinia. Later he sought refuge in

the United States, and for a while was a candle-maker on Staten Island. Throughout Italy the conservatives were again in the saddle.

Results of the Revolution of 1848. From a military point of view the Italian revolution of 1848 was a failure. But it taught the people several valuable lessons that were to aid them in their final victory. In the first place, they were convinced that they could no longer look to the Pope as their leader in the Italian Risorgimento (rê-zôr'jê-mě'n'tô) ("resurrection of Italy"). Secondly, the fate of the Republic proved to them that Mazzini and the republicans were too impractical to cope with the situation. And finally, it brought forth a leader, a man in whom the Italian people had confidence and a man whose liberal ideas rang true. That man was Victor Emmanuel II, ruler of Sardinia, known as the "honest King."

Victor Emmanuel II, 1848-1878. The new King gained that title shortly after he succeeded to the throne upon the abdication of his father, Charles Albert, in 1849. The Austrians offered the young King very favorable terms of peace after the battle of Novara, if he would abolish the constitutions which his father had granted. Victor Emmanuel's reply to Austria endeared him to the Italian patriots: "What my father has sworn to, I will maintain. If you wish a war to the death, so be it. . . . If I must fall, it will be without shame; my horse knows the road to exile, but not to dishonor."

Count Cavour, 1810-1861. In 1852 Count Cavour (kâ'vōor') became prime minister of Sardinia. He was a great admirer of English constitutional government. Short of stature, near-sighted, and a poor public speaker, he was not a commanding personality. But Cavour was one of the greatest European statesmen of the nineteenth century. He encouraged commerce, manufactures, and the building of railroads. He endeavored to make the Sardinian government so liberal that it would attract the other Italian people and fill them with a desire to join it. After accomplishing that, he planned to make Sardinia strong enough to cope successfully with Austria. But the clear, practical mind of Cavour realized that Italy could not single-handed gain her freedom from the

Austrians. He hoped to form an alliance with some strong military power to accomplish that end. "I cannot make a speech, but I can make Italy," he said. So while the Italian people's enthusiasm and loyalty for Victor Emmanuel grew, Cavour planned. And over in America the restless warrior Garibaldi waited in exile for the opportune moment to return to his native land and strike another blow against Austria. Around this triumvirate Italy was to emerge victorious.

Causes of the Crimean War, 1853-1856. In 1854 the Crimean (krī-mē'ăn) War broke out. Nicholas I of Russia, like his predecessors, desired to gain a foothold in European Turkey. He referred to the Sultan as the "sick man of Europe." When the Christian Balkan States complained about the tyranny of the Turkish government, Nicholas ordered the Russian armies into Turkey. Great Britain became alarmed, for she feared that Russian control of the Eastern Mediterranean would imperil her communication with India by that route. Napoleon III joined England, because he still resented Russia's part in the defeat of his illustrious uncle, as well as Alexander's part in the humiliating treaties of 1815. France also had designs on Syria, which would be jeopardized by the nearness of a strong power like Russia. Cavour allied Sardinia with France and England, hoping thereby to enlist their future aid in his proposed war against Austria.

Treaty of Paris, March 30, 1856. The war was ill conducted and dragged on for three years. It was fought principally in the Crimea, a peninsula which extends into the Black Sea. The battle of Balaklava (bâ-lâ-klă'vâ)—rendered immortal by Alfred Tennyson in his *Charge of the Light Brigade*—preceded the siege of Sebas'topol. After 336 days that city fell before the allies. In March, 1856, the Treaty of Paris was signed, and Cavour as a delegate won a place in the council of nations for Sardinia. In the treaty the Sultan promised to allow his Christian subjects freedom of worship and to give them a better government. The Turkish rulers never kept those promises, and the Eastern Question remains a problem to this day. European diplomacy had learned little from the fate of Metternich. Another clause neutralized the Black Sea. That is, no warships were to enter its harbors and no forts were to be erected along its

shores. The merchant ships of all nations were permitted to enter its waters.

Napoleon III Allied with Sardinia. At Paris Cavour mingled with the allied diplomats, ever painting a black picture of Austrian tyranny in Italy, and trying in every way to gain an ally. Two years later, 1858, he gained the support of Napoleon III. The French Emperor, ever ready to emulate the first Napoleon, felt that a successful war against Austria would be popular in his country and add to his own glory.

Austro-Sardinian War, 1859. Cavour purposely irritated Austria, and that country declared war on Sardinia. French troops then poured over the Alps to aid Victor Emmanuel II. Garibaldi, who had returned to his island home at Caprera, gathered a thousand volunteers, famed in history as the "Red Shirts," and sailed for Sicily. The Austro-Sardinian War of 1859 was on.

The people in Tuscany, Parma, and Modena, as well as Romagna, a part of the Pope's territory, revolted against their rulers. They took a plebiscite and voted annexation to Piedmont. In June the Franco-Sardinian forces invaded Lombardy and defeated the Austrians in the bloody battles of Magenta and Solferino. Victor Emmanuel prepared to invade Venetia. All Italy was ready to unite.

Napoleon Withdraws His Support. At this point Napoleon, to the disgust of Cavour and the Italian patriots, withdrew his support. He had counted only on a union of the North Italian states, and had no desire to see the entire peninsula united into a powerful kingdom. He excused himself on the ground that Prussia was threatening his own country.

Terms of Treaties. In Napoleon's separate treaty with Francis Joseph I, and later (1860) at the general Peace of Zurich, the following terms were agreed upon. Lombardy was ceded to Sardinia, while the peoples of Modena, Parma, Tuscany, and Romagna were permitted to annex their territory to her by plebiscite. Austria retained the Italian province of Venetia, with Trent and Trieste. France, as a reward for her services, was given Savoy and Nice. Garibaldi, when he heard that his native city Nice had been annexed to France,

rebuked Cavour and refused to become a subject of Napoleon III.

Garibaldi's Conquest of Sicily, 1860. The Treaty of Zurich was unsatisfactory to Cavour. It affected only northern and central Italy. The prime minister sent orders to Garibaldi to try to conquer southern Italy, and assured him of the secret assistance of the Sardinian government. In May, 1860, Garibaldi and his thousand red shirt warriors landed in Sicily. Francis II, who had succeeded King Bomba, had 24,000 troops on the island. Fighting desperately and recklessly, Garibaldi within a few weeks was master of Sicily. He set up a dictatorship in the name of Victor Emmanuel II. He then planned to cross over to Naples with his little band and overthrow Francis II, who had an army of 100,000 men. Everywhere the people deserted their King and hailed Garibaldi as a liberator. Francis fled, his army deserted him, and without bloodshed the daring guerrilla leader entered Naples.

Victor Emmanuel Annexes the Papal States. Victor Emmanuel hastened south and annexed the Papal States. Garibaldi marched north, intent upon attacking the French and capturing Rome, which to all Italians was the natural capital of Italy. Cavour, however, was not ready to gain the enmity of France. Rome he wanted, but he would bide his time.

The New Italy. In 1861 a new Parliament met in Turin. The states of all Italy except Rome and Venetia were represented. Until they too were annexed, Cavour considered Italian unity incomplete. He died in June, 1861, but in 1870 his dreams were to be realized. During those ten years the German states were welded into an Empire. The defeat of Austria and France by the Prussians enabled Italy to secure Rome and Venetia. To understand this, it is necessary to follow the course of events which culminated in the unification of Germany.

Germany. In 1806, as we have already noted, Napoleon I brought the Holy Roman Empire to a close and established the Confederation of the Rhine. The Congress of Vienna organized the German Confederation (Chapter XXXI) with both Austria and Prussia included. The commanding influence in that loose government during the time of Metternich was held by Austria. He was able to keep the small

German states politically divided, and consequently, as in Italy, very much weakened.



GERMANY BEFORE 1848

Showing various territories included in the German Confederation.

Frederick William IV. During the general European revolutions of 1848 the people of Berlin raised the standard of revolt. Thousands of citizens were killed by the Prussian army. But the anger of the patriots became more intense and King Frederick William IV meekly recalled his troops. A Prussian parliament was called and ordered to draw up a liberal constitution. Frederick William promised to lead a movement for a united Germany. But he lacked the moral and physical courage of Victor Emmanuel II. The hypocritical Prussian King could parade with the working classes, mourn

with them over the death of their comrades, bedeck himself with revolutionary colors, and appoint liberal ministers. He could do this when it suited his purpose. But within a few months, supported by conservatives and large armies, he could revert to eighteenth century absolutism because it suited his purpose.

Assembly of Frankfort, 1848. In May, 1848, the national convention, elected by universal manhood suffrage, met at Frankfort. There were wrangling and differences of opinion at that assembly, but the great majority were agreed upon one thing—German unity. A liberal and democratic constitution was drawn up and Germany was to be a limited monarchy. Frederick William was invited to become Emperor of the new German nation. This honor he refused, both because of his unwillingness to subscribe to a liberal constitution and his reluctance to alienate Austria. The more radical German liberals now tried to organize a republic, but the movement was cruelly crushed. It was during this period that thousands of Germans fled to America.

The Zollverein. The German people were ready for national unity. The German states saw the advantage of such a movement. Eighteen of them had already established the Zollverein (tsôl'fêr-in) (Customs Union). These states established free trade among themselves, and used a common

tariff to protect them from foreign competition. German unification was really accomplished, if the desire of the people is considered as a test. All that was needed now was some strong personality to give practical form to the popular wish.

Bismarck's Policy of "Blood and Iron." In 1862 that person appeared upon the scene as President of the Prussian ministry. He was Otto Von Bismarck



PRINCE BISMARCK

(bīs'märk), chief adviser of the new King, William I, and arch enemy of all democratic institutions. He was an advocate of the Divine Right of Kings and the union of Germany. But that union, he told the Prussian parliament, must be accomplished "not by speeches, not by votes of majorities, but by blood and iron." He would make a German nation, but not as the people willed it.

Three-fold Policy of Bismarck. To accomplish his purpose Bismarck, supported by William I, adopted a three-fold policy. In the first place, despite the opposition of Prussian liberals, he continued the system of compulsory military training. He enlarged the army and taxed the people arbitrarily for its support. Next, with this efficient military organization he planned to humble Austria and make Prussia the leader in German affairs. After accomplishing the elimination of Austria from interference in the affairs of the other German states Bismarck's third plan was to unite, by force if need be, the rest of Germany.

The Danish War of 1864. A Prussian conflict with Austria came as a direct result of a war with Denmark. The two northern provinces of Schleswig and Holstein were inhabited mostly by Germans. The two duchies, although members of the Germanic confederation, had for years been ruled by the King of Denmark. In 1863 the Danish King decided to incorporate the two states into his kingdom. The inhabitants, as well as the Prussian leaders, objected strenuously. The following year Bismarck formed an alliance with Austria, and in a short war Denmark was forced to cede the provinces to the allies.

The Seven Weeks' War with Austria, 1866. In spite of Austria's aid, Bismarck now demanded that Schleswig (shlās'vīk) and Holstein (hōl'shtīn) be annexed to Prussia. Austria objected and the man of "blood and iron" prepared for war. He easily induced Italy to join in the coming struggle, by promising that kingdom Venetia in case of a victory over Austria. In June everything was ready and Prussia declared war. The South German states sided with Austria against the Hohenzollerns. But the well-equipped, efficient, and highly trained Prussian troops, under Von Moltke, were soon on the march. In one great battle at Sadowa (sä'dô-vä),

in Bohemia, the Austrian Army was overwhelmed (July 3). Within seven weeks after the declaration of war, Austria sued for peace.

Italy Receives Venetia. Bismarck dictated the terms of that peace in the Treaty of Prague, and the humiliated Hapsburg ruler could do nothing but agree. Venetia was ceded to Italy, and now only Rome and the districts around Trent in the Alps and Trieste at the head of the Adriatic remained outside the Italian kingdom.

The North German Confederation. Prussia annexed Schleswig and Holstein. Bismarck did not take any Austrian territory, but he annexed Hanover and other German districts that had sided with Austria. He then organized the twenty-two states north of the Main into the North German Confederation, under the Presidency of Prussia. The four South German states were not forced into the Confederation but by the terms of a secret alliance they were persuaded to follow the leadership of Prussia. In order to explain how these four states were brought into the confederation, and how the confederation was transformed into the German Empire under the hegemony of Prussia, we must turn our attention to the quixotic enterprises of Napoleon III during the last decade of his reign.

Trouble in Mexico. In 1861 Mexico owed large sums of money to foreign nations, particularly England, Spain, and France. In the following year another of the many revolutions in the history of that country took place. The new President decided not to pay any foreign debts for two years. In the meantime the government was to be organized on a firm financial basis, after which the Mexican republic promised to pay her creditors. But the three countries mentioned above objected to this plan. They sent a fleet into the harbor of Vera Cruz, with orders to collect all tariff duties. Mexico thereupon made an arrangement with the three European powers which was satisfactory to Spain and England. The allied warships, with the exception of the French, left Vera Cruz.

The French Establish an Empire in Mexico. During that controversy the United States was in the midst of its great Civil War. From day to day the fate of the Federal government hung in the balance. Napoleon realized that

under those conditions the principles of the Monroe Doctrine could not be upheld. A French army invaded and conquered Mexico, and the Austrian archduke Maximilian was made Emperor. His position was rendered secure by the presence of a French army.

The United States Upholds the Monroe Doctrine. When the Civil War closed, General Sheridan was sent to the Mexican border with a veteran army of 50,000 men. The Secretary of State, William H. Seward, ordered Napoleon III to withdraw his French troops from Mexico. In order to cover his pride, Napoleon quarreled with Maximilian and pretended for that reason to evacuate Mexico. The Mexicans, under the leadership of their deposed President, rebelled against Maximilian, captured and executed him, and reëstablished the republic.



LAST MOMENTS OF MAXIMILIAN

When Napoleon III withdrew his support, Maximilian remained in Mexico, apparently still hoping to mend his Empire. The Empress, Carlotta, was sent to Europe for her own safety and to try to obtain help for the ill-fated Empire. Utter lack of encouragement, combined with the knowledge of Maximilian's danger, drove her insane. She lived on until 1927.

France and Prussia Prepare for War. While Napoleon III was engaged in withdrawing from his ill-starred Mexican adventure he was unable to derive any advantage from the Austro-Prussian War. He now began to feel that a war with Prussia was inevitable and welcomed it, since he thought a victory over the Hohenzollerns would make him a military hero in the eyes of the French people. On his side Bismarck was not averse to a war with France since he relied upon national pride and his secret alliances to obtain the South German states. So both sides prepared for war.

Cause of Franco-Prussian War, 1870. An excuse for war was soon found. In 1868 the throne of Spain became vacant. The Spaniards offered the crown to a German prince, distantly related to King William of Prussia. Napoleon was unwilling to have Spain and Prussia thus united under the Hohenzollern family. He sent word to the Prussian government that such an act would mean war. Leopold, the German prince, could not accept Spain's offer without permission from the Prussian King. William induced him to refuse the crown. Then Napoleon demanded King William's word that he would never allow a Hohenzollern to accept such a position. This last demand was refused. William then sent a telegram from Ems, where he was staying, to Bismarck, explaining the whole affair. There was nothing in that telegram to cause much excitement; but Bismarck so abbreviated it that both the French and the Prussian people were deceived. The newspaper accounts were written with the intention of angering the populace of both countries. The scheme worked well, and on July 19, 1870, the French declaration of war was handed to the Prussian ministry.

Fall of Paris, January, 1871. Within six months, to the astonishment of Europe, the Prussian armies were victorious. In August a French army was trapped at Metz. Two weeks later another French army, commanded by Napoleon personally, was captured at Sedan. The Prussians pushed on toward the French capital, laid siege to the city, and in January Paris surrendered. The Franco-Prussian war was ended.

Peace Terms. France was forced by Bismarck to cede Alsace, the city of Metz, and part of Lorraine to Prussia. The French were also compelled to pay an indemnity of one



From the painting by von Werner

MEETING OF BISMARCK AND NAPOLEON III

billion dollars, and until that money was paid a German army was to occupy French soil. These were harsh terms, and France did not forget them during the World War or in the Treaty of Versailles that followed, when she instead of Germany held the whip hand.

The German Empire. The South German states joined Prussia in the war, as Bismarck had expected. On January 18, 1871, at the palace of Versailles, the German Empire was proclaimed. William I assumed the title of German Emperor. The people had little voice in the new German government. Representatives, it is true, were elected to the lower house, called the Reichstag (rīks'täg). But its members could not make any constitutional amendment or reduce taxes if fourteen members of the upper house, called the Bundesrat (böön'dēs-rät), objected. That body also passed upon the constitutionality of proposed laws. The men in the Bundesrat were chosen by the rulers of the different German states; and the King of Prussia, who was also German Emperor, appointed seventeen members himself. So it is plain that few laws could be made by the people's representatives unless the Emperor desired it. The Emperor also appointed the imperial Chancellor, who occupied a position similar to the British and Italian prime ministers. But he was not, like them, responsible to the members of the lower house, who represented the people.

The Austro-Hungarian Empire. After Austria's defeat in the Seven Weeks' War Francis Joseph, Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary, with the aid of his advisers reorganized the Empire. After 1867 each of these countries maintained its own Parliament, but they had a common army. This dual government lasted until 1918.

Rome the Capital of Italy, 1871. During the Franco-Prussian War Napoleon, hard pressed for reserves, recalled the French troops from Rome. An Italian army immediately marched in and took control of the city. The people voted by an overwhelming majority for annexation to the government of Victor Emmanuel; and in 1871 Rome became the capital of the Italian Kingdom. Trente and Trieste still remained a part of Austria, and as Italia Irredenta ("Unredeemed Italy") those countries were to remain a bone of contention



ITALY AND GERMANY AFTER 1871

until the close of the World War. (See p. 723.) The numerous wars of Italy, and the heavy taxes to maintain the army, levied at a time when the people were unable to pay, prompted thousands to emigrate to the United States after 1870.

Position of the Pope. Pius IX, who was still Pope, objected to the annexation of Rome. The Kingdom of Italy agreed to pay him an annual income of six hundred thousand dollars, and to permit him to rule over the Church independently of the Italian government. But the Pope refused and shut himself up in the Vatican and the small district surrounding it. His successors up to the present time have followed his example.

Third French Republic, 1875. In 1875, four years after Napoleon's defeat, the French after many heated political controversies established their present third French Republic. They adopted a constitution and organized a legislature of two houses—an upper house called the Senate and a lower house known as the Chamber of Deputies. Unlike the United States, their President is elected by both houses for a term of seven years, and the real ruler, as in Great Britain (Chapter XXIV), is the Prime Minister.

The Balkan States. We now enter the last phase of this century of political revolutions. After the Treaty of Paris, which closed the Crimean War, the Turkish government despite their plighted word continued to persecute the Christians in the Balkan States. In 1874 an insurrection broke out first in Bosnia (bŏz'nĭ-à) and Herzegovina (hě'r'tsě-gô-vě'nä) and later in Bulgaria. The last named country, influenced by the revolutions in western Europe, hoped to gain its independence. The Bulgarians assassinated several Turkish government officials. Turkey retaliated by massacring thousands of Bulgarian Christians. The people of Serbia declared war on Turkey and appealed to the Christian nations of western Europe for aid. In England William Gladstone, the Liberal leader in Parliament, tried to persuade his countrymen to sever the alliance between England and Turkey, and go to the aid of the Balkans. But the party in power feared that those peoples if free would become the allies of Russia, which country would threaten her commerce with India. So for the sake

of trade, Great Britain was unwilling to defend Christian populations.



BALKAN STATES AFTER THE CONGRESS OF BERLIN

Russia Defeats Turkey. In 1877 the Tsar decided to act alone, and again sent a Russian army into Turkey. The Turks were easily defeated and compelled to sign a treaty granting the independence of Bulgaria, Serbia, Rumania, and Montenegro.

Congress of Berlin, 1878. Austria and England objected to the freeing of those states, and Russia was forced to sub-

mit the entire matter to a Congress held in Berlin, in 1878. That Congress decided: (1) that Bosnia and Herzegovina were to be governed by Austria; (2) that Serbia, Montenegro, and Rumania were to be independent of Turkey; (3) that Bulgaria was to be independent, but upon the payment of a yearly tribute to Turkey. Once more European diplomats had made a mistake, for here in the Balkans some of the seeds of the World War were planted.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Compare the methods of Cavour and Bismarck in uniting their respective countries.
2. Why were the Carbonari and the party of Young Italy unable to cope with the Austrian government, or to rally all of the Italian people to the cause of unification?
3. Trace the history of Germany from the time of Charlemagne to the formation of the German Empire in 1871.
4. Point out in what countries the policy of Metternich had failed at the time of the Congress of Berlin.
5. Show in what respect both the Congress of Vienna and the Congress of Berlin disregarded nationality.
6. In what ways does it appear to you that Napoleon III imitated Napoleon I?
7. Compare the political ideas of Metternich with those of Bismarck.
8. Point out (1) in the Crimean War and (2) at the Congress of Berlin why England opposed the independence of the Balkans.
9. In what way does the election of the French President differ from that of the President of the United States?
10. Compare the work of the German Zollverein with the commercial policy of the several states of the United States during the Critical Period in American History.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

Prepare a chart showing the contemporaneous persons and events in this Epoch, allowing a column for each country. Using this chart as a basis, form committees and prepare imaginary dialogs.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

BENT	<i>Life of Garibaldi</i>	Longmans
SCHAPIRO	<i>Modern and Contemporary European History</i>	Houghton
SEIGNOBOS	<i>Political History of Europe Since 1814</i>	Holt

EPOCH EIGHT

SCIENTIFIC PROGRESS AND SOCIAL REFORM

Epoch Seven told the story of Political Revolutions. It included the American and French Revolutions; the career of Napoleon Bonaparte and its effect on all Europe; the Napoleonic Wars, followed by the Congress of Vienna and the rise of Prince Metternich, who tried to quell revolutions in Spain, Italy, Germany, and South America. The latter part of the century, as we saw, was marked by revolutions in the Balkans against the autocratic rule of the Turks. It was a century in the story of World Progress that began to spell victory for the democratic principles that must underlie human progress.

But during that same century there began a series of events that were to revolutionize the lives of the people even more than the political revolutions,—events that were due to the tireless energy of scholars, scientists, and inventors. These men introduced new and scientific methods of agriculture. They invented labor-saving machinery, which resulted in the building of large industrial establishments. They were responsible for the modern age of steam, gas, and electricity. These great inventions altered the economic and social life of the people. They were, unfortunately, accompanied by hardships for the laboring classes until those people could adjust themselves to the new conditions. This so-called “Industrial Revolution,” accompanied by the struggle between capital and labor, resulted in a series of social and economic reforms. Epoch Eight will trace this Scientific Progress and Social Reform.

CHAPTER XXXII

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Colonial Markets. The commercial revolution of the fifteenth century established new markets for the trading countries of Europe. Then followed a period of colonization in America, Asia, and Africa. The European colonies were restricted according to the prevalent mercantile theory of commerce, and were forbidden to trade with any nation save their mother countries. They were forced to send much of their raw materials to the homeland to be manufactured. The finished products were then returned and sold in the colonial markets. This was an unnecessary expense, as the goods might have been manufactured in the colonies in the first place, and so have saved transportation costs.

England's Economic Problem. This policy, as we have seen, was one of the chief causes of our Revolutionary War. England lost thirteen of her colonies, but she still possessed a great colonial empire. She had wrested Canada from France and had emerged victorious in the struggle for India. She had island possessions in the Atlantic and in the Pacific. Raw materials from these numerous colonies flowed into her ports. The result was a growing demand for English manufactured goods on the continent of Europe, in Asia, and in Africa. But how was England to meet this increased demand at home and abroad? That was one of the economic problems that faced the English people at the middle of the eighteenth century.

The problem was solved by a number of scientific achievements and mechanical inventions that completely revolutionized the old methods of farming and manufacturing.

The Agricultural Revolution. In England during the first half of the eighteenth century important farming machines were invented, including automatic planting machines and cultivators, drawn by horses. During this same period

scientific methods of tilling the soil were devised. The old system of crop rotation (Chapter XIV) let strips of land lie idle every third year. It was discovered that beets and turnips could be planted in those strips without injury to the soil. Better grades of fertilizer increased crop production. Threshing machines and iron plows came into use about the time of the French Revolution. At the same time, scientific methods of selecting and breeding live stock were introduced. The weight of cattle was thus increased and their meat found a ready market in the growing industrial towns. Then, too, with the improved methods of tilling the soil three and four times as much could be raised on an acre of ground as formerly. Agriculture became very profitable for men who were financially able to equip large farms with those improvements. On the other hand, the poor tenant farmers were unable to compete with the rich land holders. They were forced to sell out and accept jobs as farm hands or else migrate to the city and seek employment.

Beginning of the Industrial Revolution. In the cities the dispossessed farmers were doomed to disappointment. There they found that expensive steam propelled machinery had been installed in large buildings. A few machines operated by one person could produce as much as hundreds of the old hand-workers. Moreover, competition had become so keen among the capitalists (the persons who owned the factories and the machines) that men were discharged and women and children employed in their places. They were forced to work from fourteen to sixteen hours a day for a mere pittance. The records show that in some cases little children only six and eight years old were beaten when they became tired and shirked their work. The workers were forced to live near the factories in order to be on time in the morning. It also enabled them to get home quickly at night and snatch a few hours rest. Because of so much unemployment and small wages, several families were forced to live in one room. Tenement houses and congested slum districts became prevalent. The factories were dirty and poorly ventilated. These conditions, with the long hours, affected the health of the workers. And to make matters worse, machinery was exposed and continually endangered the lives of the employees.

A Transition Period. Such was the beginning of the Industrial Revolution, which started in England about 1760. It spread to the Continent, then reached America, and finally affected the whole civilized world. The transition from hand-made goods to machine production was attended by much misery.

Problem of Epoch VIII. No movement, however, in all history has benefited humanity more than the scientific achievements and mechanical inventions of this Epoch. But in nearly every case man has had to adjust himself to the new conditions that were created. This is the great outstanding problem of the age. The periods of adjustment found him pondering over many questions. Tenement houses, slums, low wages, long hours, unhealthful conditions of work, child labor, lack of provision for accident or old age, and the fights of capital and labor are only a few of the social problems that have been and are being threshed out in the legislative halls of civilized nations.

With this general idea of the Epoch, we can now take up the story of those inventors, physicists, chemists, physicians, and other scientists who have played such an important part in its history.



EARLY SPINNING WHEEL

Spinning. The textile industry was one of the first to be revolutionized by mechanical inventions. Previous to 1730, the manufacture of cloth was done by hand. Wool, cotton, and flax in their raw state consist of a twisted mass of fiber. In the first place the fibered threads were straightened out by combing or carding. Then

the workers had to spin the individual fibers into threads. This was done by attaching the mass of raw material on the end of a stick called a distaff. The twisted end of the fibers was then fastened to another stick called a spindle, upon which the threads were wound. The spinning wheel had been introduced

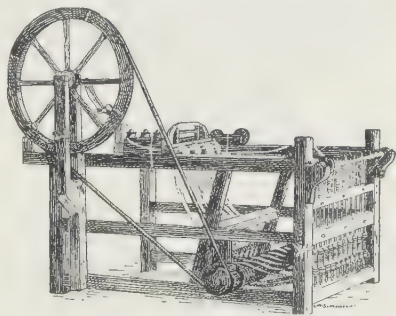
into Europe from India, about the fourteenth century. In this case the spindle was placed upon a frame and connected by a belt to a large wheel. By pressing a foot treadle, the large wheel was rotated; and this turned the spindle and twisted and wound the yarn.

Weaving. After the thread had been spun it was placed upon a loom or wooden frame. Vertical threads, called the warp, were attached to the loom. Horizontal threads, known as the woof, were woven in and out between the vertical threads by means of a large needle called a shuttle. So weaving, too, was a slow, tedious hand process.

John Kay and the Flying Shuttle. In 1733 John Kay invented a "flying shuttle." It was worked by a handle and spring and enabled the weaver to work twice as fast as before. It was impossible now for the spinners to provide yarn fast enough to keep all of the weavers busy. The capitalists—in this instance the men who supplied the raw materials—therefore discharged many of the weavers. The workers were in despair. They broke into Kay's home, destroyed his machines, and threatened his life. The capitalists, on the other hand, were enthusiastic. They used the flying shuttle, but paid the inventor nothing for the privilege. John Kay fled to Paris to escape the enraged workers. There he lived a sad and lonely life and died in poverty.

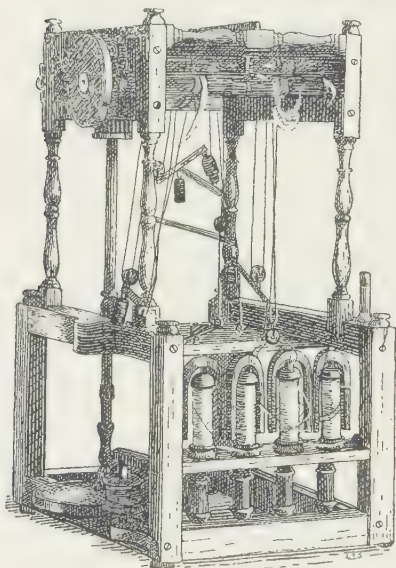
James Hargreaves and the Spinning Jenny. But now that people could weave so much more quickly than they could spin, prizes were offered for a machine that could spin more thread. One day a poor weaver who lived in Lancashire, in northern England, hit

upon a scheme. As he sat in his humble cottage the spinning wheel of his good wife, Jenny, fell over upon the floor. The wheel continued to whirl. But the spindle, instead of being in a horizontal position, now stood upright. Immediately an



HARGREAVES' SPINNING JENNY

idea struck Hargreaves (här'grēvz). He believed that a number of upright spindles could be made to revolve by means of one wheel. In 1785 he invented a machine along that line which was able to spin eight threads at once. He called his new invention the spinning "jenny," in honor of his wife. But like Kay, James and Jenny Hargreaves were persecuted by the other workers, and received no money for the invention.



From model in the U. S. National Museum.

ARKWRIGHT'S (1769) SPINNING
MACHINE

Richard Arkwright and the Water Frame. Before the death of Hargreaves, jennys were in use capable of spinning as many as eighty threads at one time. A few years after the spinning jenny had been invented, Richard Arkwright (ärk'rīt) patented a "water frame." Arkwright was the son of a poor laborer and the youngest of thirteen children. He was born near Liverpool, and at the age of ten was apprenticed to a barber in a small manufacturing town nearby. In a little alley barber shop, in the cellar of an inn, this young barber worked for nearly twenty years. He enjoyed a brisk trade for he only charged

a penny a shave. Tiring of this work, Arkwright quit and became a hair-buyer and wigdresser. As he traveled up and down the country buying hair he chanced one evening to lodge at the home of James Hargreaves. The former barber had always been interested in machinery; and no doubt he and Hargreaves found that subject an interesting topic of conversation.

Arkwright's water frame was an improvement over the jenny. This machine, run by water power, consisted of rollers

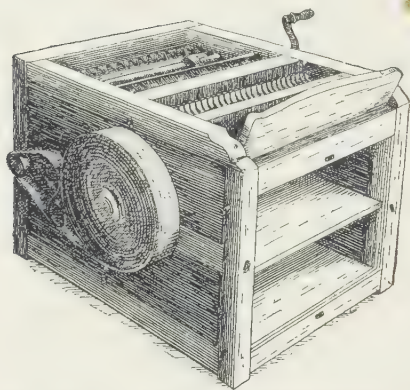
through which the fibers were drawn out and then twisted into fine strong thread by revolving spindles. Unlike his predecessors, Arkwright had business ability. He bought up several factories, installed his water frames, and became very prosperous. King George III, from whom we gained our independence, made him a knight.

Crompton and the Spinning Mule. In 1779 Samuel Crompton combined the best features of Hargreaves' spinning jenny and Arkwright's water frame. The new machine was called a spinning "mule." It has been steadily improved upon, until today it is entirely automatic and carries several thousand spindles. Crompton's invention was stolen by others, and while they grew rich he died poor.

Edmund Cartwright and the Power Loom. These successive inventions in spinning reversed the situation and made it impossible for the weavers to keep up with the spinners. This problem was solved by a middle-aged country parson by the name of Edmund Cartwright. He invented a loom with an automatic shuttle, which was operated by water power. This machine, after several improvements, made it possible for a single operator to weave more cloth than two hundred men could weave on the old hand loom.

Effect of the Loom upon the Workers. The power loom threw hundreds of weavers out of work, and they laid the cause of their unemployment to Cartwright. The minister was hated by these laborers. His goods were destroyed and his machines damaged, and soon he too was facing poverty. The men who had been discharged saw only the evils of the new invention. They did not see that eventually many more men would be needed to smelt iron, make machinery, and care for the increased production. When Cartwright was an old man, the English Parliament voted him a gift of \$50,000.

Eli Whitney and the Cotton Gin. The spinners and weavers could now manufacture cloth so rapidly that a new problem confronted the textile industries. They were unable to secure enough raw material, and the factories were often shut down until a supply could be secured. But this trouble was overcome in the case of cotton by Eli Whitney's invention of the cotton "gin" (engine). Whitney was the son of a Massachusetts farmer, and after graduating from Yale Uni-



From the model in the U. S. National Museum.

WHITNEY'S COTTON GIN

versity he went down south where he had been promised a tutoring position. Here he met a group of southern cotton planters who were pondering over the subject of a quicker method of separating the cotton seeds from the fiber. There was an enormous demand for English cotton goods, especially in India, because cotton was much cheaper and cooler than wool. This led to a

greater demand for the raw material. The inventive genius of Whitney was aroused. He set to work on the problem and within a few months (1794) invented the cotton gin. Operated by one person, it could separate the seeds more quickly in a given time than fifty slaves.

The Cotton Triangle: England, America, India. The result was that cotton raising became the chief industry of the southern states. More laborers were required on the large plantations and consequently negro slavery increased. Within the next few years the English mill owners and workers became dependent upon American cotton. During the Civil War President Lincoln ordered the southern ports blockaded. This proved so effective that bales of cotton numbering well up into the thousands rotted on the wharves. Many mills in England were forced to close down, and the mill workers became idle. England, cut off from her cotton supply in the United States, began to encourage and develop its growth in India. Soon her factories were being supplied with the raw material from that country.

Steam. In the middle of the eighteenth century most of the factories were situated along creeks and rivers. There the running water was used to revolve large wheels, which, in turn, by means of belts were made to propel machinery. But before the century closed men discovered the secrets of

steam power and the whole process of industrial life was changed. This was attended by a complete revolution in the social, economic, and political affairs of mankind.

James Watt and the Steam Engine. Scientists had been experimenting with steam even before the time of Christ. In 1706 Thomas Newcomen (nû-kŭ'mĕn), an English mechanic, invented a steam engine to pump water from a coal mine. More than sixty years later that engine was sent to Glasgow, Scotland, to be repaired. There it was handed over to James Watt (wŏt), a mechanical instrument maker of the University of Glasgow. By adding several improvements, Watt made it possible for the steam engine to propel machinery.

Coal and Iron. The introduction of new and heavy machines created a demand for iron. But the smelting of iron was a slow and expensive process. The metal was heated in charcoal furnaces, and hand bellows were used for the blast. In 1760 a blast furnace was invented, and coal was used instead of wood for smelting. A series of mine inventions cheapened its production. Thereafter the industries, no longer dependent upon the uncertainty of wind and water power, were located at places where it was convenient to get coal, which was used to heat water and make steam.

The Steamboat. Following close upon the heels of improved methods in manufacturing and the growth of the coal and iron industry, there came a revolution in the means of transportation. English manufacturers had to wait months and months to get their raw materials. It took just as long for the finished products to reach the consumers. Both in America and in England inventors were working on the problem of steam locomotion. John Fitch had a steamboat on the Delaware River, near Philadelphia, before the close of the eighteenth century. In 1802 a steamboat was in operation on the Firth of Clyde Canal in Scotland. But to Robert Fulton of Pennsylvania has gone most of the credit for inventing the first steam-driven vessel. In August, 1807, Fulton's boat the *Clermont* made a trial trip up the Hudson. The *Clermont* went from New York to Albany, a distance of 150 miles, in thirty-two hours. Twelve years later the *Savannah*, equipped with steam and sails, crossed the Atlantic in twenty-nine days. In 1838 the *Great Western*, depending

upon steam alone, made the trip from the New to the Old World in fifteen days.



FULTON'S "CLERMONT"

The Steam Locomotive. Fulton had used a Watt engine in the *Clermont*. Three years earlier Trevithick (trév'î-thîk), an Englishman, used the same kind of engine to propel the first locomotive. In 1814 George Stephenson invented a locomotive to haul coal from the mines. Eleven years later (1825) he constructed the first railway, between Stockton and Darlington, in northern England, a distance of twelve miles. In 1830 he built the Liverpool and Manchester Railway. With his new locomotive, the "Rocket," passenger trains could travel at the rate of twenty miles an hour—marvelous time for the people of that day.

Steel. With the increased demand for industrial machinery, steam engines, and iron rails, it was found that something stronger and more durable than iron was needed. This problem was solved by the chemists, who discovered that a proper

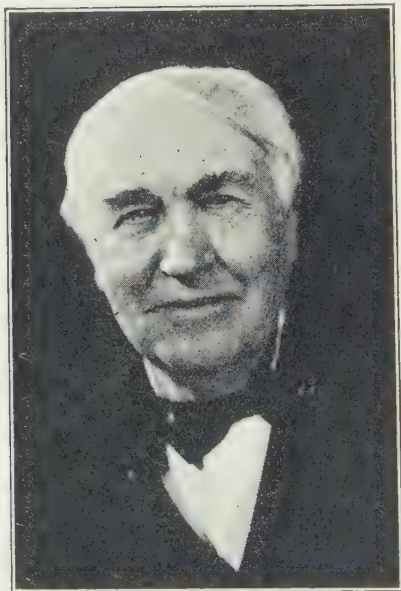
percentage of carbon mixed with melted iron produced steel. And to supply the increasing needs great steel plants, employing thousands of men, were soon in operation.

The Gas Engine. Railroads and steamship lines brought the world closer together. Whereas travel between certain nations had formerly taken months it was now only a matter of weeks. Steam transportation enabled people within the same country to travel from city to city within twenty-four hours, a trip which had formerly taken days. But man had hardly ceased to wonder about the marvels of the steam engine when in 1867 the gas engine was introduced. In many cases, especially where a relatively small amount of power was needed, it replaced steam.

The Automobile. The importance of the gas engine was increased by the discovery of great oil deposits in western Pennsylvania, in 1859. Since then oil has been found in other parts of the United States, as well as in other countries. German, French, and American inventors made possible the automobile. In 1896 there were only four automobiles in the United States. Twenty-five years later there were over 10,000,000 motor vehicles being operated in our country.

The Aeroplane. The gas engine also made possible the aeroplane. In 1903 Samuel Langley (lǎng'ǎ), an American astronomer and physicist, produced his heavier-than-air machine. It did not carry passengers, but it made a successful flight. Many newspapers ridiculed the idea of a flying machine, and this first model was nicknamed "Langley's Folly." Five years later the brothers Orville and Wilbur Wright, two American inventors, made public flights, and aviation was placed upon a practical basis. In 1924 two aviators in the United States Army Air Service circled the globe, a distance of 26,103 miles, in 365 hours flying time, over a period of five months and two days.

Electricity. During the same years that men were experimenting with the gas engine, and making possible the automobile, the aeroplane, and the submarine, other scientists were experimenting with electricity. In 1831 Michael Faraday (fǎr'ă-dă), an English physicist and chemist, completed the first dynamo capable of producing an electric current. Nearly fifty years passed before man learned how to use that



THOMAS ALVA EDISON

This great American inventor was born in Milan, Ohio, February 11, 1847. The phonograph, long-distance telephone, incandescent electric lights, and moving pictures are only a few of the inventions connected with his name. The work of Edison has been a big factor in the progress of civilization and the comfort of mankind.

current to run a motor. But today electricity has replaced steam and gas for many practical purposes. Telegraph, telephone, submarine cable, wireless telegraphy, and radio enable us to communicate with distant nations as easily as men one hundred years ago could get messages to their next door neighbors.

First Transoceanic Telephone Conversation, 1927. With the dawn of the new year, 1927 (Jan. 7), another great stride in human progress was taken. President Walter F. Gifford of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company conversed with Sir G. Evelyn Murray, Secretary of the General Post Office of Great Britain, over the radio telephone. This marked the beginning of transoceanic two-way telephone communication and

was the culmination of experiments begun in 1915 when speech in one direction was telephoned across the Atlantic.

Revolutionizing Effect of Electricity. Electricity is revolutionizing the home. It is being used more and more for heating, lighting, cooking, and washing. It has lightened the burdens of the housewife. Wood sawing, feed cutting, milking, and other irksome tasks are being performed by electric power. As electricity gradually replaces steam and gas in the factories of our great industrial cities, smoke, ashes, and harmful fumes will no longer be a problem.

Medicine. Great changes were not limited to the mechanical world, however, during the past century. The discovery of anesthetics enabled physicians to deaden the pain of their suffering patients. In 1859 Louis Pasteur (pàs'tûr'), a Frenchman, made the important discovery that most diseases are caused by germs. Later, antiseptics or chemicals to kill germs were used in

surgical operations. When it was discovered that unclean water and filthy dumping grounds were breeding places for germs, laws were passed and other efforts were made to clean up. In 1895 the X-ray was discovered, and doctors were able to locate injuries and other ailments with certainty.

But while these changes were taking place, man was compelled to adjust himself continuously and rapidly to the new conditions. How this was accomplished in part, first in England and then in the United States and other countries, will be told in the next two chapters.



From the N. Y. Times, Jan. 8, 1927.

A cartoon sent by wireless from Europe at the opening of the Atlantic telephone service.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Show how man utilized (1) "animal muscle" and (2) wind and water power to perform his labor.
2. Contrast the domestic system of industry with the factory system as to (1) time and quantity of production, (2) price of article produced, (3) effect on the laborer.
3. Show some of the evils created by the Industrial Revolution, and some of the benefits.
4. Enumerate the conveniences that can be had in a modern home that were unknown one hundred and fifty years ago.
5. How did the Industrial Revolution affect the interdependence of nations?
6. How did the development of the English textile industries affect the United States? India?

7. How has the automobile changed the economic and social life of men?
8. What advantages has man gained by the discovery of electric power? Is it cheaper than steam or gas for commercial purposes?

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Report on the lives and the inventions of the following men: Samuel F. B. Morse; Alexander G. Bell; Thomas A. Edison; Guglielmo Marconi.

II. Report on the work accomplished by the following men: In medicine, Edward Jenner, Louis Pasteur; in geology, Sir Charles Lyell; in biology and other scientific investigations, Charles Darwin.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

ILES	<i>Leading American Inventors</i>	Holt
MARSHALL	<i>Story of Human Progress</i>	Macmillan

CHAPTER XXXIII

REFORM MOVEMENTS IN EUROPE

New Laws to Meet New Conditions. The change from the domestic system did not take place in all industries and in all countries at the same time. In the more advanced nations today there are certain lines of work that are still carried on in the homes. In the more backward countries, despite modern methods, there are craftsmen who still ply their trades in the same way that their forefathers did hundreds of years before. But among those people who were in the vanguard of progress the gradual introduction of machinery and the application of steam, gas, and electric power changed the whole order of their industrial organization.

England. In England, as in other countries, the old laws in many cases conflicted with the changed circumstances, and new laws were needed to meet the new conditions. So men and women struggled to gain political, social, and economic reforms. Slowly the conditions of the masses were bettered. Gradually the people secured more say in their governments; and unlike the old age of absolutism, side by side with the

century of political revolutions we witness the growth of democracy. Men with high ideals in the political world, constructive social reformers, and unselfish labor leaders and workers have all played a part in these great reform movements.

Statute of Laborers, 1562. Previous to the Industrial Revolution the English government passed many laws regulating not only the price of commodities, but also the wages and hours of labor for the workers. During the reign of Queen Elizabeth a law was enacted (1562) known as the Statute of Laborers. This law revised and consolidated many former labor laws, and affected the majority of the trades. Among other things it provided that no one could work at any trade unless he had first served his seven-year apprenticeship. No worker after he had once hired with a master was allowed to leave or to be discharged for a period of one year, except by order of a justice of the peace. No one was allowed to leave the city or town without a permit. The working hours between March and September were from 5 A.M. to 7 P.M., with two and one half hours for meals. From September until May the wage earners were to work from dawn to sunset. All wages were to be fixed by the justice of the peace.

Government Regulation in the Sixteenth Century. When the Statute of Laborers was passed, the workers had no share in the political affairs of the kingdom. Under those circumstances government regulation did not better the conditions of the wage earners. The squires, who were usually the justices before whom the workers were brought, were often influenced by the wealth or prestige of the employer. They would fix the wages at a very low scale and the employees had no redress. Since the government claimed to protect the workmen, they were forbidden to organize for the purpose of improving their common lot.

Trade Restriction. But the English capitalists came to resent the regulation of prices and wages by Parliament. Such legislation, they argued, destroyed competition. With the introduction of machinery and steam power the manufacturers of different nations began to compete with one another for world trade. In the commercial countries of Europe the new capitalists were handicapped by the old Trade and

Navigation Laws. The Trade Laws in England, it will be recalled, forbade the importation of many articles that could be made in England. This was prevalent on the Continent also. In many cases imported goods could be sold much cheaper than they could be manufactured at home. This protection increased the cost of living for the consumer. According to the Navigation Laws raw materials could only be shipped from English colonies in English vessels. The English manufacturer now demanded the right to purchase his raw materials from those countries that were able to sell the cheapest.

The Corn Laws. These restrictive measures were still on the statute books at the beginning of the nineteenth century. In 1815, on behalf of the landowners, Parliament passed the "Corn Laws." These laws placed a high tariff on the importation of wheat. The wealthy agricultural class justified such protection on the ground that they paid most of the taxes. But the poor people objected to this law because it increased the price of bread. The factory owners objected because the higher cost of living forced them to pay higher wages.

The "Laissez Faire" Policy. It was during the latter half of the eighteenth century that men began to revolt against political tyranny. At the same time a reaction was started against the restrictive policy of government in industry and commerce. This movement seems to have had its beginnings among a small group of thinkers in France who called themselves "economists." They argued that agriculture was the origin of all wealth. This being the case, they objected to the regulation of prices and the high protective tariffs that affected farm products. Governments, they further stated, should not interfere in any way with either commerce or industry. Their doctrine was "*laissez faire et laissez passer*," which meant let things be done and let things pass. For the past century this idea has been known as the "*laissez faire*" (lě'sā fār') or let-alone policy.

Adam Smith, 1723-1790. Adam Smith, a Scotch professor, was greatly influenced by the French thinkers. In 1776, the year in which our Declaration of Independence was signed, Smith's epoch-making book, *The Wealth of Nations*, was published. He did not agree with the French economists in

many things, especially their theory of agriculture. But like them he objected to protective tariffs, to the old Mercantile System of commerce, and to government regulations of industry.

"The Wealth of Nations." In his *Wealth of Nations* Smith wrote: "Leave men alone and equality will reassert itself. What men need in their business is not protection but liberty. Under a system of free competition each man will seek his own interest, and in seeking his own interest will be led by a sort of natural and beneficent providence to promote the best interests of society as well. If the result is not the best that is ideally conceivable, it is at least the best that is practically possible, and is certainly better than can come from any interference of government." Since Adam Smith wrote, mankind has learned that there are many unfair people who if let alone will not promote the best interests of society. But in many other things Smith's reasoning was sound, and he is known as the "father of political economy." Through his teachings many men of his own day were converted to the *laissez faire* idea.

Navigation Acts Abolished. It will be recalled that by the Navigation Acts of 1660 no goods could be shipped to England on other than English vessels. In 1796 Parliament allowed American ships to carry goods from America, Asia, and Africa to England. This privilege was later extended to Brazil and other South American countries. In 1849 the Navigation Acts were abolished altogether. The abolition of the Navigation Acts cheapened the cost of production by breaking the power of the English monopolies. But in the keen field of competition the capitalists sought further means of lowering expenses. Wherever possible they reduced the wages of the workers, until life became unbearable for those unfortunate people. Despite *laissez faire* theories, the workers were forced to appeal to their government for aid.

Child Labor in North England. We have already noticed that before the general use of steam power factory owners had to build their factories along creeks and rivers, where they could utilize the water power. Most of the rapid streams in England are located in the northwest. Very few people lived

in those remote country districts. It was impossible for the new factory owners to secure enough laborers nearby.

But the capitalists found a remedy for this condition. In London and other large cities the almshouses were overcrowded with children. The manufacturers agreed to apprentice these children and in return for their labor to feed, clothe, and educate them for a number of years. The overseers of the poor previous to this had always found it difficult to place their charges, and they welcomed the idea. Hundreds of little paupers from the age of seven upwards were bound out and set to work in the cotton factories of the northwest. Far removed from the watching eyes of society, the condition of these child workers became hideous. When business was good, and rush orders were pouring in, the children were arranged in two twelve-hour shifts, one group working days and the other nights. In the poorly ventilated, ramshackle "apprentice houses" where these orphan slaves were boarded one shift would crawl into bed while the other crawled out. The people of the north used to say that their beds "never

got cold." They were treated cruelly. Their food was cheap and unwholesome and they were allowed few play hours. The suffering of these waifs in a Christian country enabled a few capitalists to grow wealthy. Here was one case where man would not work for the benefit of society if unrestricted by the government. It was strong evidence against a *laissez faire* policy.



SIR ROBERT PEELE

Factory Legislation. Finally the condition of these little children became known in other parts of England and public sentiment was aroused. In 1802

Sir Robert Peel took the matter before Parliament. Peel, who was later to become prime minister, was himself a manufacturer and employed more than a thousand children. But through his influence a law was enacted that year, known as the "Health and Morals Act," to regulate the labor of young children in the cotton factories. It forbade the employment of children under nine years of age, and abolished night labor. It reduced the hours of labor to twelve working hours a day, and ordered that factories should be properly ventilated. This was the first of the factory laws. Later, laws were passed forbidding the employment of all women and children in the mines. The hours of labor were further reduced and child labor was forbidden for children under fourteen years of age. Factories had to be ventilated and kept clean. Dangerous machinery was ordered fenced to protect the employees. Inspectors were appointed by the government to enforce these laws.

Robert Owen, 1771-1858. It took many years and much bitter controversy, however, before many of the later factory acts were passed. But in the early struggle, when conditions were at their worst, a few men tried to better the lives of the working class. Among these was Robert Owen, a wealthy mill owner and philanthropist of Manchester, in England. Owen rebuked many of his fellow factory owners for their oppression of the poor. In his own factory town of New Lanark (lăn'ărk), in Scotland, he established what he believed could be the ideal community the world over. Concerning New Lanark he wrote: "For twenty-nine years we did without the necessity for magistrates and lawyers; without a single legal punishment; without any known poor rates. We reduced the hours of labor; we educated all the children from infancy, and greatly influenced the condition of adults."

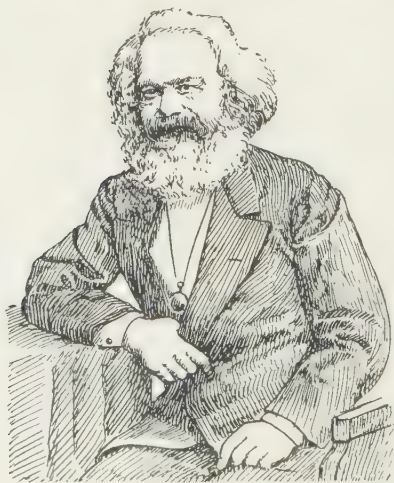
It was through the influence of Robert Owen that the British Factory Law of 1819 was enacted, and the working hours for all women and children were reduced. As he was both idealistic and practical, the world was better because Robert Owen had lived.

Louis Blanc. Labor conditions as described in England were pretty much the same on the Continent. We have already had cause to mention in Chapter XXXI the work of

Louis Blanc in France. He endeavored to set up a system of government-owned workshops throughout France. This was one of the many forms of socialism. There are so many that Samuel Gompers, the great American labor leader, in speaking of a particular form referred to it as one of the "57" varieties.

Karl Marx, 1818-1883. But of all the socialistic theories the one advocated by Karl Marx has been the most influential. Millions of followers accept its teachings in whole or in part. Marx had been educated at the University of Berlin. His parents wanted him to become a university professor. But he became interested in the laboring classes and sought a way to abolish human misery. His first books on socialism were published during the revolutions of 1848. These works created a furore in Germany and France, and Marx was driven out of first one country and then another. He spent the remainder of his life in England. There he did much writing and organizing. He formed the International Working Men's Association, which held regular congresses in different parts of the world until 1878. The idea of internationalism for the benefit of workers was continued, however, by the International Labor Union.

Marxian Socialism. Marx did not believe, as did Owen, that society could be reorganized by philanthropists. He believed that such a change would come only after a class struggle. Human history, he said, has been a struggle of the classes: master against slave; plebeian against patrician; serf against lord. The final struggle, he maintained, would be that of the workers against the capitalists; and after the workers learned to unite they would win. With this idea in mind his followers adopted the slogan "Work-



KARL MARX

ers of the world, unite! You have nothing to lose but your chains and all the world to gain." Marx did not believe in the equal distribution of property, nor was he opposed to the private ownership of property. But he maintained that the means of production (capital) should be socialized. He did not believe in violence, but advised his followers to organize political parties and seek justice at the polls. Many people who claim to be followers of Marx, such as the Communists or Bolsheviks in Russia, have merely adopted some "catch phrase" from his teachings.

Opposition to Reform. The work of Smith, Peel, and Owen in England, of Blanc in France, and of Marx in Germany shows how the thoughts of men were revolutionized by the industrial changes. Their agitation and the needs of the times helped to hasten reform. But those reforms encountered much opposition. With the industrial revolution and the employment of women and children it was difficult for many men in England to find employment. Many of these men had families dependent on them for a living. Theirs was a case of either work or starve. The capitalists took advantage of this condition. They would drive a sharp bargain with men, employing them for long hours at the lowest wages. A worker would hire in the morning and before noon be discharged because another man had agreed to work for less money. When the workers attempted to organize to protect themselves their plans were frustrated by Parliament. In 1800 a law was enacted forbidding journeymen and other laborers to combine. It became a prison offense for men to demand higher wages or shorter hours, or to try in any way to prevent another man from working for less than a living wage.

Beginning of Trade Unions. Despite this law the workers organized social clubs, which were really secret societies to combat labor conditions. They resorted to violence, attacking factories and the homes of men who refused to join them in their fight for higher wages and shorter hours. The discontent and continual riots became so general that Parliament in 1824 repealed the Combination Act of 1800. The workers were given the legal right to combine for collective bargaining. This was the beginning of the Trade Union

movement in England, in America, and in Europe. For a long time the trade unionists were confused with the socialists. This was especially true in the United States, where the leaders of the American Federation of Labor were forced to combat the advocates of socialistic policies within their ranks.

Limited Suffrage in England. But it was impossible for English working men to secure better laws for the laboring classes so long as they had no share in their government. We discussed the development of the cabinet form of government in Chapter XXVIII. We saw how the representation in Parliament at the end of the eighteenth century was confined to a few hereditary lords and landholders. These men represented certain districts specified by Parliament. But during the Industrial Revolution the tenant farmers were forced to



SCENE ON THE MANCHESTER SHIP CANAL

Manchester is the greatest manufacturing city of England. Much of its prosperity is due to the ship canal which gives it communication with the sea through the Mersey River.

leave the old agricultural communities. They migrated to the growing industrial towns of Leeds, Birmingham, and Manchester, located in the coal and iron regions. These cities soon contained thousands of inhabitants but were not represented

in Parliament. There had not been a redistribution of seats in Parliament for over two hundred years. One town in southern England—Old Sarum—had had two representatives in the fourteenth century. It had fallen into ruin, and by 1830 did not contain a single inhabitant; yet the owner of the land continued to nominate and elect two representatives to Parliament. Such places as Sarum, which had representation with little or no population, were called “rotten boroughs.”

The Reform Bill of 1832. It was during the American Revolution, as we have seen, that the people in England were agitating for a more just representation and a wider suffrage. During that war, and the Napoleonic Wars that followed, the question was thrust into the background. But in 1830 the people demanded reform. The Tory party was in power at this time and the Duke of Wellington, hero of Waterloo, was their leader. He was opposed to all reform, and speaking of the existing political situation openly declared that “no better system could be devised by the wit of man.” Wellington became very unpopular, and at the next election the Whig advocates of reform gained control of Parliament. Thereupon, in 1832 a bill was introduced which gave the larger cities representation in their government, abolished the “rotten borough” system, created new boroughs, reduced the number of representatives from the smaller towns, and extended the privilege of voting to a larger number of people.

Opposition to the Reform Bill. The Reform Bill of 1832 met with a great deal of opposition on the part of the Tories. Twice the bill passed the House of Commons and twice the Tory House of Lords defeated it. The English people became enraged and stoned the homes and carriages of the lords. The country was on the verge of a revolution. Finally Earl Grey, the Whig prime minister, demanded that the King create new noblemen or peers. These men would then take their seats in the House of Lords and insure the passage of the bill. The King was forced to agree, and the lords, rather than have commoners placed on an equal footing with themselves, passed the bill when it came before them the third time. Many reformers were disappointed with the new bill. While it reduced the property qualifications, and thereby permitted more

people to vote, practically all laboring men were still without the right of franchise.

The "Chartists." A petition was presented to Parliament which is said to have contained over a million signatures. It demanded that all men be given the right to vote, and that members of the House of Commons be paid so that poor men could be elected to represent their districts. These reformers received the name of "Chartists." Great parades were held and riots occurred, but Parliament ignored the petition. During the revolution of 1848 on the Continent the demand was repeated. Petty revolts and uprisings took place, which were quelled by armed force. But the people were insistent, and twenty years later the government felt obliged to institute further reforms.

Sir Robert Peel, Prime Minister, 1841. In the meantime there was much opposition to the old Corn Laws and other protective tariffs. In 1841 Sir Robert Peel became prime minister. He was a Conservative—the party name which about this time replaced Tory. Peel, as we have seen, was a rich manufacturer. He believed in a high protective tariff and was opposed to free trade. The English people could secure cheaper and better wheat from foreign countries if they were not forced to pay the heavy import duties. But the Corn Laws placed such a high tariff on imported grains that the British landowners were able to sell their wheat at an enormous profit. The people complained bitterly about the cost of bread and the attitude of the profiteers.

Potato Famine in Ireland. The agitation against the Corn Laws was brought to a head by conditions in Ireland. The separate parliament of that country had been abolished in 1801 and the Irish given representation in the British Parliament. Between 1845 and 1850 there were several failures of the potato crop in Ireland. Potatoes were the chief food of the Irish and this famine caused untold misery among the peasants. The high price of wheat because of the tariff duties made it almost impossible for them to buy bread. Thousands of Irish people left their homes and went to America.

Repeal of the Corn Laws. Gradually Peel began to see that the Corn Laws protected only a few wealthy landhold-

ers. In 1846, after a bitter fight in which he lost the leadership of his party, he secured the passage of an act that abolished the Corn Laws. One after another, other protective duties were legislated out of existence.

Free Trade in England. By 1860 Great Britain had become a free trade country. Only on very rare occasions does she now place a tariff on exports. Unlike the United States and many other countries, the British government does not protect home industries by a high tariff on imports. Few things that are manufactured in England can be purchased more cheaply from other countries. The government does place a small duty on certain imports, but these are for revenue purposes only. Thus free trade in England does not mean that there are no tariff duties whatever.

Disraeli and Gladstone.

But the English people still demanded a greater share in their government, as well as other reforms. During the latter part of the nineteenth century the story of the reform movement in England gathers around two names, that of Benjamin Disraeli (dīz-rā'li) and that of William E. Gladstone.

Second Reform Bill, 1867. Disraeli was a Christian, but the son of Jewish parents. He entered Parliament as a Conservative Tory and remained so until the end of his life. Although he was not a large landowner, he



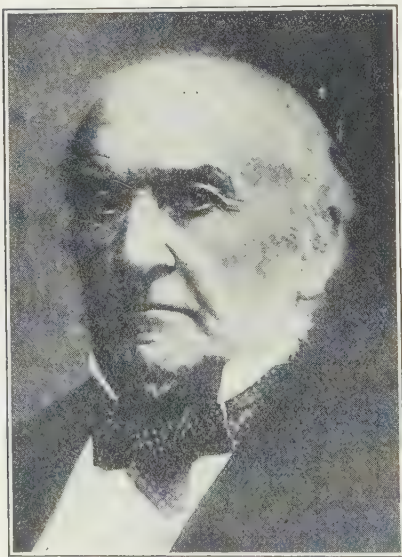
BENJAMIN DISRAELI

Leader of the Conservative Party, who became prime minister in 1868.

opposed the repeal of the Corn Laws in 1846. After the death of Robert Peel he became the acknowledged leader of the Conservatives in the House of Commons. Disraeli saw that the Conservatives could not oppose all reform and still retain their

power in Parliament. Through his influence a second Reform Bill was passed in 1867. This law permitted all house owners, tax payers, and people who rented homes for a certain amount per year to vote. This gave the franchise to about two-thirds of the men in England.

William E. Gladstone, 1809-1898. The following year Disraeli became prime minister, but his ministry fell within a few months. Gladstone, leader of the Liberals (new party name for the Whigs) and great rival of Disraeli, succeeded to the office. For the next six years, 1868-1874, the Gladstone ministry remained in office. Gladstone was the son of wealthy parents. His father was a merchant and owned large sugar and coffee plantations in the West Indies. He was educated first at Eton and then at the University of Oxford. He desired to be an Episcopalian minister, but his father was anxious for him to enter politics. This he did, and because of his surroundings and training he at first became a Conservative.



WILLIAM E. GLADSTONE, 1809-1898
One of England's greatest prime
ministers.

Slavery Abolished in England, 1833. Gladstone entered the House of Commons in 1833. This was the same year in which Parliament emancipated all Negro slaves in the British colonies. A sum of approximately \$100,000,000 was set aside to pay the slave owners for their losses. This was an expensive but humane reform, and far better and cheaper than the price our country was forced to pay thirty years later.

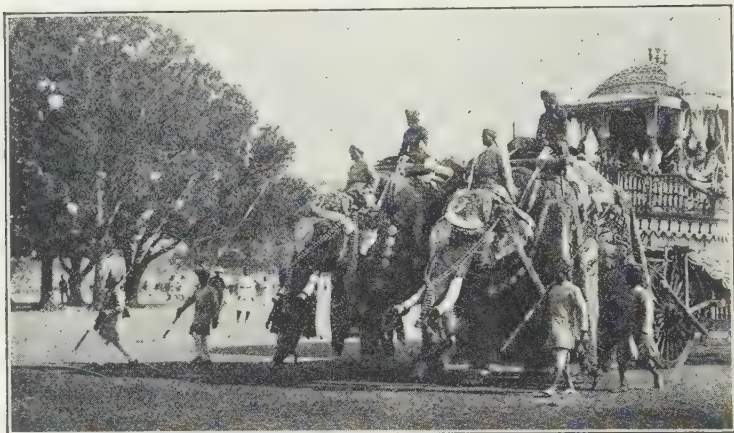
Reforms in Ireland. In the beginning of his career Gladstone was a thoroughgoing Conservative. But during the fight for the

repeal of the Corn Laws he joined his great leader Peel. In 1859 he went over to the Liberal party. As leader of the Liberals he was appointed prime minister eight years later. Some of the chief reforms of Gladstone related to Ireland. The majority of the Irish people, except in Ulster, were Catholic. Regardless of this fact, they were forced to pay for the support of the Anglican Church in their country. In 1868 a law was enacted disestablishing the Church of England, and so this unjust taxation was removed. Two years later laws were passed bettering the conditions of the Irish tenant farmers, who were sorely oppressed and neglected by their absentee landlords in England. It was not until 1903, however, that Parliament provided a large sum of money to be loaned to the Irish peasants so as to enable them to purchase their farms.

Education in England. Up until 1870 the English government concerned itself but little with public education. There was a prevalent notion that general education would foster revolutionary ideas. This was true so long as governments remained despotic. But an enlightened political order based upon justice does not need violent revolutionizing. It was three years after the second Reform Bill (1870) that Parliament enacted a law providing for free public instruction for all children in the elementary schools. Ten years later this system was adopted in France. Prussia had encouraged public education during the reign of Frederick the Great, and by this time it had a well defined school system.

Queen Victoria, Empress of India. In 1874 the Conservatives again secured control of Parliament, and Disraeli remained prime minister for the next six years. He devoted most of his time during those years to foreign affairs. He was interested in building up a great British Empire. One of his first acts was to have Parliament proclaim Queen Victoria Empress of India.

Disraeli's Foreign Policy. Through the influence and financial aid of the French government the Suez Canal had been completed in 1869. This connected the Red Sea with the Mediterranean and did away with the necessity of sailing all the way around Africa. The English government not only refused to help, but opposed the construction of the



A DURBAR PROCESSION

Upon the accession of a British ruler the princes of India meet in a ceremonial gathering, or durbar, and offer allegiance to the new sovereign. Above is a chariot of a native prince in a durbar procession.

canal. When a few years later the Khedive of Egypt went bankrupt, Disraeli purchased his share of the canal for Great Britain. This gave England a controlling interest in that waterway and guarded her claims in India. At the Congress of Berlin in 1878, as we have seen, he sided with Turkey and opposed Russia. This was an inexcusable act on the part of Disraeli, but Queen Victoria honored him with the title of Lord Beaconsfield (bē'kūnz-fēld) and a seat in the House of Lords. Thus ended the public career of a man who in his first speech before the House of Commons was so ridiculed that he was forced to take his seat, but not before shouting "I shall sit down now, but the time is coming when you will hear me." And they did, for in many respects he was one of England's greatest prime ministers.

Third Reform Bill, 1884. It was during the second ministry of Gladstone, in 1884, that a third Reform Bill was passed. By this act the suffrage was still further extended so as to include several million more men. But unmarried sons living in their fathers' homes and many laborers were still forbidden to vote.



QUEEN VICTORIA

Mr. Balfour said of Queen Victoria after her death in 1901, "She passed away without an enemy in the world, for even those who loved not England loved her." She had ascended the throne in 1837 at the age of eighteen. Throughout her reign, the longest recorded in British history, she had been a model constitutional monarch.

Extension of Franchise. From the time of the third Reform Bill not only men but women began to demand the right to vote. In the early part of the twentieth century Norway and Finland granted women the franchise in general elections. During the World War the same privilege was given to the women of Denmark. After the war suffrage was extended to the women of Sweden and the United States. In 1918 the English Parliament conferred the franchise on all men and women in Great Britain. By 1910 manhood suffrage had been granted to the people of Italy, Spain, Portugal, and Belgium. Gradually, after long years of struggle, men and women were securing a share in their governments.

Lloyd George. Gladstone, on two occasions, tried to establish Home Rule for Ireland, but each time the measure was defeated by the House of Lords. Some years later, however, that privileged group was destined to block its last bill. In 1908 David Lloyd George, the son of a poor Welsh school master, was appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer. He knew what poverty meant; he understood the condition of the poor, for he had been one of them. The next year he started to wage a war on misery. In a great speech he said: "I am told that no chancellor of the exchequer has ever been called on to impose such heavy taxes in time of peace. This is a war budget. It is for raising money to wage implacable warfare against poverty and squalidness. I cannot help hoping and believing that before this generation has passed away we shall have advanced a great step towards that time when poverty, and the wretchedness and human degradation which always follow in its camp, will be as remote to the people of this country as the wolves which once infested its forests."

House of Lords Shorn of its Veto Power. In order to secure the money for his budget Lloyd George placed heavy taxes on those who could best afford to be taxed. A tax on luxuries and on large incomes and inheritances was levied. Wealthy landholders who did not cultivate their land were to be taxed more than those who did. The budget passed the Commons but was rejected by the House of Lords. Parliament was dissolved and a new election held, with the result that the Liberals were elected by a large majority. Then the Lords passed the budget. But the people were tired of

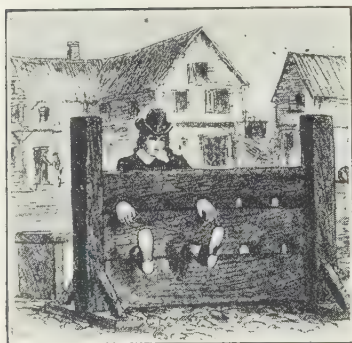
an hereditary body overruling the will of their elected representatives. So an act was passed that virtually took away the veto power of the House of Lords. This was in 1911.

Demands for Industrial Reforms in Germany. The industrial changes in Europe brought forth many demands from the German Socialists. They were divided, however, and during their early struggles were persecuted by the government. In 1878 they united and demanded universal suffrage for all men and women over twenty years of age, freedom of speech and of the press, free compulsory education, and prohibition of child labor. They demanded better working conditions for women and shorter working hours for all, and insisted that the government should protect the life and health of workmen in mines and in factories. They became so strong that within a few years they had polled at one election nearly 500,000 votes and had elected two members to the Reichstag.

State Socialism under Bismarck. The aristocratic junkers and ruling classes became alarmed. Bismarck adopted a twofold policy to protect the absolute monarchy. First, he persecuted the Socialists; and second, to quiet the people he instituted government reforms. One after another, he carried laws providing for sickness, accident, and old age insurance. The government took over the railroads, telegraph lines, and other public utilities. Education and the working conditions of the laborers were improved. But the Social Democrats objected to this so-called State Socialism. Politically the people had no share in the government, and they resented the paternal attitude of their rulers.

High Protective Tariff in Germany. When the unification of Germany took place, in 1870, the new nation had to decide on its commercial policy—either free trade or protection. Bismarck claimed that with a low tariff the old German states had been the dumping ground for the products of other countries. In order to protect infant industries, and to promote all manufactures, he established a high protective tariff; and this has remained the policy of Germany ever since.

Crime. Another great movement of this period was a more humane attitude towards criminals and the punishment for crime. During the feudal age and well into the nineteenth



IN THE STOCKS

A mild form of punishment in the 17th century.

century persons accused of crime were tortured in the most barbarous fashion. They were crucified, burned to death, buried alive, torn limb from limb, and crushed between iron spikes. Often innocent men were cruelly punished and tortured to make them confess or give evidence. There was no attempt to remedy the causes of crime or to reform the prisoners. The first scientific study of this subject was made in Italy in the latter part of the eighteenth century.

Prisons—John Howard and Elizabeth Fry. The prisons were dark, damp, and fever-ridden. They often consisted of one room, where men, women, and children were huddled together. The innocent children of debtor prisoners were thrown in contact with the vilest and most hardened criminals. John Howard, an Englishman (1726-1790), roused public opinion in that country by his vivid descriptions of the horrors of prison life. The story of Elizabeth Fry, an English Friend who sacrificed the last years of her life for prison reform, is unusually interesting. She visited the prisons and spent her own money and time in supplying the inmates with food and clothing. Through her influence many were given a new start in other parts of the world.

Prison Reform. At the time John Howard wrote there were 150 crimes for which a man might suffer the death penalty in England. Today in most civilized states only treason and murder are considered grave enough for capital punishment. The better prisons are sanitary and well ventilated, and the prisoners are separated in individual cells. Wholesome food is supplied to the inmates, and they are frequently allowed to work at their own trade or profession. Those having no trade are taught some useful occupation and fitted to face life when their term expires. There is much to be accomplished in the way of prison reform, but much has been

done since the time of Elizabeth Fry, less than one hundred years ago.

From this short account of the great reform movements in Europe we shall now turn our attention to the Industrial Revolution in the United States.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. How did the Trade and Navigation Laws benefit English merchants at the time of Charles II (1660)? In what way were they a hindrance to English merchants about 1830?
2. What are the advantages of a protective tariff? What are its disadvantages? What is the advantage of free trade? The disadvantage?
3. In what ways was the *laissez faire* policy of the French economists and of Adam Smith impracticable?
4. Do you know of any cases of child labor in the United States today? What makes such cases possible?
5. In what way would you say that Sir Thomas More was several hundred years ahead of his times? Roger Bacon?
6. In what way did the American Revolution delay English representation in Parliament? In what way did it aid that same movement?
7. How did the Corn Laws affect (1) England, (2) Ireland, (3) the United States?
8. Describe the position of Disraeli and of Gladstone on the Corn Laws, and their attitude towards Sir Robert Peel.
9. Why did the Social Democrats object to the reforms of Bismarck?

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. In various elementary textbooks in economics read and discuss the arguments for and against a high protective tariff.

II. Prepare a report on the advantages (1) of international trade, (2) of prison reform, (3) of different forms of socialism.

III. Give brief reports on the lives of Queen Victoria and of Elizabeth Fry.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

WINES	<i>Punishment and Reformation</i>	Crowell
CHENEY	<i>Industrial and Social History of England</i>	Macmillan
GOMPERS	<i>Seventy Years of Life and Labor</i>	Dutton
TAPPAN	<i>In the Days of Queen Victoria</i>	Houghton

CHAPTER XXXIV

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IN THE UNITED STATES

Industrial Changes. The invention and introduction of machinery has affected the manufacture of similar products throughout the world in very much the same way. For example, the steel mills of Japan are operated by the same up-to-date methods as are used in the United States. So are the recently established cotton mills, flour mills, and glass factories of China. We say "recently established," because we must remember that in China today the domestic system of manufacturing still predominates. But in all other respects the story of the Industrial Revolution is the same in no two countries. Population, climatic conditions, access to raw materials, natural resources, capacity of the inhabitants, fertility and amount of land, all differ in various localities. These fundamental factors, separate and combined, create different problems for the men and governments of all nations.

Problems Created by These Changes. To illustrate: One country might have plenty of coal, iron, and other facilities to build a factory and install machinery. But it has no raw materials for the desired production. Therefore, it must either import these raw materials or export its coal and iron. Before doing this, however, the would-be manufacturer must study world conditions. He must look around and see whether or not some other country has access not only to coal and iron ore, but also to raw material, intelligent labor, and inexpensive transportation facilities. If it has all those advantages he asks his government for a protective tariff at least high enough to cover the difference in cost of production. He will naturally desire free trade for the importation of the raw materials.

Africa. The following is an example of how those factors, in part, have influenced the history of Africa. That country contains much fertile soil. It has an abundance of gold, silver, ivory, copper, and precious stones. It is rich in other natural resources: iron ore, coal, petroleum, and rubber. Yet

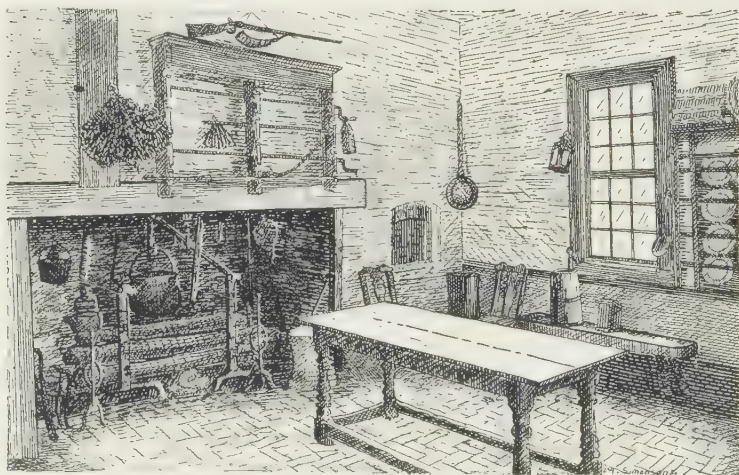
with all these natural advantages Africa lacked a strong government and intelligent labor, and therefore it was not feared in the competitive markets of the world. Its inhabitants were native Negroes, who, because of the hot climate and other conditions, were indolent and lazy. On the other hand, Europeans with the advantage of a temperate climate were strong, virile, and ambitious. But their lands were poor in natural resources compared with the "dark continent."

Imperialism. The introduction of steam and gas power and the manufacture of automobiles and tires offered wonderful opportunities in Africa. But the natives were unable to take advantage of them. So the European nations, because of the backwardness of the Africans, set out to secure and develop those natural resources. Possession of that country would also create a market for their surplus goods. For that reason, after 1870, England, France, Belgium, Germany, and other countries scrambled and grabbed for land in Africa. Such tactics for such purposes were a phase of the so-called modern imperialism. In the name of imperialism European nations oppressed the natives and warred among themselves, as we shall note in the next Epoch. That was how the invention of machinery and the age of the gas and steam engine affected the history of Africa.

Transition Period in America. That age affected the economic history of our own country in a far different way. While in England the transition period from the domestic to the factory system was accomplished by much misery, such suffering was much less acute in America during the corresponding period. When the government of the United States was formed there was no wealthy nobility who owned all the land. There were very few factories, due in part to the fact that the old English Trade and Navigation laws discouraged manufactures among the colonists, but mainly to the great abundance of cheap land which encouraged most of the people to become farmers. Even when machinery and the factory system were introduced, American workmen were not forced to toil for starvation wages. They had little fear of labor competition or of men underbidding them for their jobs. If the factory owners cut their wages they migrated to the undeveloped but fertile West. There they could purchase farm

land at a low price or secure undeveloped land from the government for almost nothing.

In England. This was just the reverse of the situation in England. There, you will recall, the wealthy nobles bought up all the available land. The tenants and small landowners were driven from the soil. They went to the cities and if possible secured work. When wages were cut they hardly dared to complain. There was no "West" in England beckoning for them. They could emigrate to America—thousands did—but family ties and lack of money often stood in the way. Americans did not feel the pinch of economic conditions until about the middle of the nineteenth century; not until after those intrepid frontiersmen had crossed the last frontier and reached the Pacific, and the country thus opened had become more thickly populated.



AN AMERICAN COLONIAL INTERIOR
The kitchen of Washington's home, Mt. Vernon.

The Colonial Home. Previous to the American Revolution many of the poorer farmers had to supply their own economic needs or purchase them from artisans in little rural workshops. The father, with the help of his sons and neighbors, often built his own home and barn, after which there was a

"house warming" or "barn raising" party. There were plenty of cider, several fiddlers, and merry dancing. In many cases the men made shoes for their families, saddles and harness for their horses, and their own tools. The mother and daughters supplied the family with homespun clothing. They canned their own vegetables and fruits and salted down their own meats. It was not until after Louis Pasteur of France and Joseph Lister of England, in 1870, had worked out their theories and discoveries of chemical antiseptics that the modern meat packing and fruit and vegetable preserving industries came into existence.

The Old Home and the New. There were none of the present conveniences in the homes. They were poorly lighted by tallow candles. Even what we today consider the old-fashioned kerosene lamp was not in use until 1860. Matches were not invented until 1827. Only a hundred years ago our forefathers were compelled, when they wanted fire, to strike a flint stone with a steel bar. This would create a spark which came in contact with a piece of charred linen or "tinder." After blowing on the tinder for some time they were able to make a flame. Cooking was done in open fireplaces and baking was in brick ovens. It was not until 1774 that Benjamin Franklin invented his iron stove, which could be placed in the middle of the room away from the chimney. Later improvements, like the base burners and furnaces, gave added comforts. Only the present generation knows the convenience of steam, hot water, gas, and electric heating. This is also true of the electric light, electric washers and irons, electric and fireless cookers, the telephone, the phonograph, and the radio. What next in this marvelous age?

How the Revolutionary War Affected Our Industries. Before the American Revolution we purchased from England the manufactures we could not make for ourselves or do without. In 1792 Alexander Hamilton, our first secretary of the treasury, induced Congress to place an import tax on those foreign products that he believed Americans should be encouraged to manufacture. This protected our infant industries and was the first tariff in United States history. There was, of course, no tariff placed on goods that Americans could not

manufacture, because our people desired such articles as cheaply as they could get them.

Samuel Slater and the Textile Industry. England tried to protect her textile industries by prohibiting anyone taking models of the machinery out of the country. America retaliated by offering bounties to anyone bringing them into the United States. In one of Richard Arkwright's mills an English worker, Samuel Slater, heard of this bounty. Instead of bringing models or plans into America, Slater studied and memorized every detail of the spinning machines. In 1793 he built a mill at Pawtucket, Rhode Island, and depending on his memory alone was able to construct and install the new machinery. Slater, like the English manufacturers, employed women and children in his mill.



SLATER'S MILL

The birthplace of the American textile industry.

American Manufactures during the War of 1812. For the next twenty years there was little progress in the development of the textile industries of our country. Most of the spinning and weaving was done in the homes, and large

quantities of cotton and woolen goods were still shipped from England. During the War of 1812, however, our trade with Great Britain was cut off. People had to depend upon their own manufacturers. The Napoleonic Wars had been going on for some time previous to this. The European powers, absorbed in that struggle, could not concentrate on business and supply their markets in other parts of the world. This situation made it profitable for Americans to start manufacturing.

Francis Lowell. Before the War of 1812 had ended there were more than a hundred cotton mills around Providence, Rhode Island. The Americans were handicapped in one way—they had to depend upon hand workers to weave their cloth. In 1814 an American, Francis Lowell, returned from a visit to England. While there he had made a study of Cartwright's power loom, then being used for weaving in most English factories. Lowell built a factory in Waltham, Massachusetts, and installed machinery for both spinning and weaving.

Use of Anthracite Coal As Fuel. The building of these new factories created a demand for coal and iron. The rich deposits of iron and soft coal around Pittsburgh met this new demand. The Americans before the war had depended upon England for much of their soft coal. And then the great hard coal regions of eastern Pennsylvania began to be developed. So, out of necessity, once more the people of the United States started to manufacture cotton, woolen, and flax goods. They developed their own coal, iron, and steel industries.

Tariff of 1816. After the war England tried to regain that trade. In order to ruin the manufacturers of our country, the English manufacturers decided to export their goods at an exceptionally low price. A member of Parliament said that "it was well worth while to incur a loss on the first exportation in order to stifle in the cradle those rising manufactures in the United States." English imports poured into our country. The Pittsburgh iron works could continue, because the expense of sending foreign goods across the country was enormous, but the iron works of the East had to close down. Other industries in the East were threatened in like manner. Once more the government came to the rescue. In 1816 it increased the tariff rates of 1792 and placed duties on other

goods that had not previously been protected. Since then the United States has maintained a protective tariff.

Roads and Canals, 1820-1840. As the American pioneers moved westward, and settled in the Louisiana territory, new states were formed. This necessitated, both for commercial and for political reasons, better communication between the East and the West. In 1811 the government began to build a National Pike, which when completed extended from Cumberland, Maryland, into Illinois. In 1816 a bill was passed by Congress appropriating a large sum of money to construct roads and canals and further to improve communication. But President Madison vetoed this bill on the ground that there was nothing in the Constitution that provided for the spending of money by the government for such purposes. These improvements were then made by the states. A network of roads and canals was established. From 1820 to 1840 these were our best means of transportation and communication. At the end of that time they were supplanted by railroads.

Railroads. In 1830 there were but thirty-two miles of railroad in the United States. Within the next ten years this mileage had increased to three thousand. By 1860 our country was bound by thirty thousand miles of steel rails, nearly all privately owned. Transportation was quickened and cheapened and the postal service improved. The old pony expresses, stage coaches, conestoga wagons, and most of the canals became things of the picturesque past.

Employment. The railroads employed thousands of men. To equip the roads, huge mills with the improved Bessemer and "open hearth" methods of making steel were erected. These also employed thousands of workers. To supply the railroads, the steel mills, and other industries, as well as the homes, the coal mines employed thousands more.

Westward Expansion. Between the years 1819 and 1853 the United States rounded out its present limits. First the government purchased Florida from Spain in 1819. In 1845 Texas was annexed. The following year, by a treaty with Great Britain, Oregon was secured. In 1848, by the treaty that closed the Mexican War, New Mexico and California were added to the Republic. In 1876 the Sioux (sō) Indians, led by Sitting Bull, annihilated the federal troops in

what is known as Custer's "last fight." The Sioux were conquered a little later, and the passing of the Red Man as a danger enabled the White Man to develop the great Western farm lands. It also made possible the migration of the cattle raising industry. The great plains east of the Rocky Mountains were soon dotted with ranches and roving cattle. The railroads made it easy and cheap to ship large herds from Cowboy Land to the East.



CONESTOGA WAGONS

The "Covered Wagons" played such an important part in the early westward expansion of the United States that they have come to be almost symbolic of that movement. With the advent of the great transcontinental railway systems the conestoga wagons, the stage coaches, the pony expresses, and the canals became things of the picturesque past.

Farm Improvements. The invention of farm machinery—plows, mowers, reapers and binders, drawn by gasoline tractors—revolutionized farming in the new Far West. Not only the countless workers in the rising industries of the East, but also foreign countries were receiving food products from the Western farms. During this period a method for stopping the spread and growth of germs in fresh meat, by freezing,

was discovered. This is known as the cold-storage process. Soon meat packing industries grew up, and cattle from the Western ranches were sold, slaughtered, and packed in the Middle West. A new and cheaper source of food supply was thus created.

Newspapers. Industry and commerce increased by leaps and bounds. The telegraph, the telephone, and wireless telegraphy were great assets for the railroads and for all other business organizations. Cylindrical presses, steam power, and other inventions brought about a revolution in printing. In 1833 the New York daily *Sun* established the first penny newspaper in the United States. Other papers followed the example. Their desire for news increased the business of telegraph and telephone companies. The laying of the submarine telegraph cable through the Atlantic to Europe, in 1866, enabled the newspapers to give their readers the daily news of Europe. This was a great educational advantage to the people of the two continents.

Problems of the New Age. But the filling up of the West, the numerous inventions, and the great industries brought their problems. The population of cities increased by thousands and tens of thousands. The competition of capitalists produced labor troubles. Woman and child labor in the mills and factories increased. Tenement houses and slums became prevalent in our cities. Strikes on the part of laborers and lockouts on the part of employers became common. The continual revolutions and hard times in Europe brought a steady stream of immigrants to our shores, who competed with native workers in the labor market. The government assumed at first a pronounced *laissez faire* policy. Wildcat business schemes and unsound financial legislation helped to produce financial panics, with their usual business failures, labor unemployment, and other miseries.

Big Business and the Integration of Industry. Toward the end of the nineteenth century a few men in the business world began to question the old idea that competition is the life of trade. Some capitalists would buy up all or nearly all of the factories of some particular industry. After getting rid of all competitors, the monopolists, as they were now called, would frequently increase the price of their products.

Gradually the process went further, as in the meat packing industry. The capitalists would manufacture their own boxes, cans, and wrappers. This enabled them to secure those necessities at the cost of production. There were many advantages in this so-called "big business" idea. It was possible for the manufacturer to sell his products to the consumer at a much lower price, if he chose to do so. Later it was discovered that waste could be avoided, and the "integration" of industry took place. By this is meant the making of by-products. For example, not only the meat of the pig was utilized, but lard was made from its fats, brushes from its hair, and buttons and combs from its bones. In fact, as one wit has expressed it, they made something out of everything but the squeal.

Sherman Anti-Trust Law, 1890. Sometimes a group of manufacturers controlling these various industries would combine, appoint trustees for their separate interests, and enter into price, wage, and other agreements. Such a combination was called a "trust." The Standard Oil Trust and many other such organizations were formed at this time. The trusts became very unpopular, because of the heartless ways in which some of them had crushed smaller manufacturers. People resented the fact that these organizations restricted competition. A great many of them were accused of fraudulent methods, and of charging excessive prices for their goods. Until 1890 the government did not interfere with "big business." But by that time the abuses of the railroad magnates and other trust officials became so intolerable that the Sherman Anti-Trust Law was passed. This act states that "every contract, combination in the form of trusts or otherwise, or conspiracy in restraint of trade and commerce is illegal." Another section reads, "Every person who shall monopolize or combine or conspire with any other persons to monopolize any part of the trade or commerce among the several states or with foreign countries, shall be deemed guilty of misdemeanor."

Fighting the Trusts. For some years the trusts as a whole paid little attention to this law. When Theodore Roosevelt became President in 1901, however, he prosecuted many of the trusts, and his successor, Mr. Taft, brought an even greater

number before the federal courts. The war on the trusts was continued by President Wilson. In 1914 he signed the Clayton Anti-Trust Act and a bill creating the Federal Trade Commission. Under these acts the government investigates, supervises, and regulates to some extent these large corporations.

The New Immigration. The vanishing of the frontier, the growth of business, keen competition both at home and in the world markets, and the increased population placed the American laborer on much the same competitive basis in 1880 as the English worker had been in 1800. The wages of our workers were still further endangered after 1880 by immigration from across the Atlantic and Pacific. Previous to that date most of our immigrants came from the British Isles and northwestern Europe. But the political upheavals and warfare in Italy and Austria-Hungary in 1870 and the struggle of Russia and the Balkan States against Turkey in 1878 caused much discontent. In Italy the people were burdened with taxes. In those other countries not only taxes but the lack of political and economic freedom prompted people to turn their faces toward the Promised Land. After 1844 the ports of China, which had been closed so long to the people of the western world, were partly opened to American trade. Chinese laborers emigrated in steady streams to our Pacific coast. Able to live on a few cents a day, they underbid and threw out of employment many workers in the western states.

The American Federation of Labor. There had been labor organizations and trade unions of the separate crafts previous to 1881. In that year, however, in order to present a united and stronger front in their struggle with capital many of the trades combined into the American Federation of Labor. Samuel Gompers, a cigar maker by trade, was elected president, a position which he held every year but one until his death in 1924.

Samuel Gompers, 1850-1924. Samuel Gompers came to America from England in 1863 as a poor immigrant boy. Born and raised on the East Side of London, he started to work at his trade in New York at the age of thirteen. After working hard all day he attended school at night, and studied during the long evenings. He early affiliated himself with

the Cigar Makers Union and became an active member of the International Labor Union.

Tenement House Labor. Several years before the formation of the American Federation of Labor he waged a successful fight against manufacturers who were employing cigar workers in the crowded and unhealthful tenement houses. He was aided in this struggle by Jacob Riis, and also by Theodore Roosevelt, who was then a New York assemblyman just entering politics. Later, when the Legislative committee of



SAMUEL GOMPERS

the American Federation of Labor was considering a plank for the regulation of child labor, Mr. Gompers gave the following description of tenement house conditions: "While making the house-to-house canvass I saw scenes that sickened me. Little children, six, seven and eight years of age were seated in the middle of the room on the floor, in all the dirt and dust, stripping tobacco. Little pale-faced children, with a look of care upon their faces, toiled with their tiny hands from dawn till dark and even late into the night, to keep the wolf from the door. I asked the children how long they worked, but they did not or could not understand. In the simplest way I talked to them, and learned that they began before daylight and worked till after dark. Often they would be overcome with weariness and want of sleep and fall over upon the tobacco heap. Shame upon such crimes, shame upon us if we do not raise our voice against them."

In the early part of the twentieth century the American Federation of Labor became a power in our government. The workers, the government, the schools, and the general public began to study economic and social conditions. Chinese labor

was excluded by Congress in 1882, for a period of ten years. The law was renewed at the end of that period.

Federal Child Labor Act of 1916. On September 1, 1916, a federal Child Labor Act was signed by President Wilson.

THE BEGINNING AND END OF CHILD LABOR



"SHINE, MISTER?"

One of many cartoons used by propagandists to promote the passage of the Federal Child Labor Act.

It prohibited the transportation between our states of all products made by children. It forbade the employment of children under sixteen years of age in mines and quarries. Children under fourteen years of age were not to be employed in shops and factories, and between the ages of fourteen and sixteen they were not to be employed at night for more than eight hours. This law was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court in 1918,—not because the justices believed in child labor, but because the right to regulate it belonged to the states and

not to the federal government.

Child Labor Act of 1919. The Act of 1916 having been declared unconstitutional, in 1919 Congress tried another method of controlling the labor of children. It imposed a federal tax of ten per cent on the net profits of all establishments employing child labor. Three years later (1922) this second attempt to extend federal authority into the domain of the police power of the states was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court. Thereupon, an amendment to the national Constitution expressly permitting the exercise of this authority was passed by Congress and is now (1927) before the states for ratification or rejection.

Meanwhile, the fight for the protection of young people in industry is going steadily forward in the various states, through their exercise of the police power.

INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IN U. S. 623

The Capitalist and the Laborer. Many and bitter have been the strikes and lockouts, until both labor and capital have come to realize that those tactics are detrimental to their interests. The capitalist closes his factory against labor, he loses money, misery stalks at the feet of the unemployed, the merchants can't sell their goods, and the public suffers. The same conditions prevail during a strike of the workers. In former years some of the capitalists were very unfair. They required laborers to work long hours, at low wages, under the worst kind of conditions. Gradually they came to see that higher wages, shorter hours, and clean surroundings made better and stronger workers. Physically fit labor could turn out more work in eight hours than weaklings could turn out in twelve.

Government Responsibility for Human Welfare. The government, aided by public opinion, also came to see that it was not to the nation's advantage to ignore those social and economic conditions. If America was to hold its place among the powers of the world, mothers and fathers could not be made human wrecks; for their children would then become a race of physical and mental degenerates. So Congress and the state legislatures placed hundreds of laws on their statute books to better the lives of the people. They devoted and are still devoting large sums of money to the public schools, which are making possible a better citizenry. The country now knows that there is no room for a *laissez faire* policy in a government of, by, and for the people.

Pure Food Act, 1906. In 1906 government chemists made strict examinations of the food and drugs that were being placed on the markets. They discovered that a great quantity of those products were impure and adulterated with dangerous chemical ingredients. The health of the public was being endangered. President Roosevelt threw all of his power and influence back of the movement to have Congress enact a pure food law. In June of that year the Pure Food Act became a reality. It imposed a penalty upon anyone who used poisonous chemicals or other injurious substances in the adulteration of goods shipped from one state to another. This law permits the sale of adulterated products, but the public must be made acquainted with the fact by labels which tell the nature of the adulteration.

Meat Inspection Act, 1906. There had been a great deal of scandal concerning the conditions in the large stock yards and meat packing industries. It was claimed that diseased cattle were being slaughtered, packed in insanitary ways, and delivered to the public. So, along with the Pure Food Act a Meat Inspection Bill was passed. It provided for government inspection and approval of all animals and meats before they were sent to the consumers. Again the government manifested its interest in the public welfare.

Development of World-Wide Interests. It took the people a long time to realize that it was of vital interest to them to know by whom, how, and under what circumstances articles were made. The things that the public ate and wore could not be produced by underpaid, undernourished, and diseased workers without danger to the consumer. The importance of knowing and remedying these things is not confined to national boundaries, however. In this age, when modern steamships bring products from all the world to our doors, we have a right to know the conditions under which they are made—whether in China, India, or any other distant land. Slowly and almost unconsciously this age of invention and wonderful development has made the nations of the world more and more dependent upon one another. Not only in business is this true, but in politics and things in general there is a growing spirit of internationalism.

Dawn of a New Epoch. But before we see how this idea was to dawn more clearly upon mankind, we must consider a movement that was slowly but surely headed toward a great catastrophe—the World War. That movement, Imperialism and Conflict, will form the next Epoch.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Contrast the transition period from the domestic to the factory system in England with that in the United States.
2. Show how climate, physical characteristics, and natural resources produce different industrial conditions in North America from those in South America. What similar industries do they have?
3. How did the Revolutionary War affect industry in England? In America?

INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IN U. S. 625

4. How did the War of 1812 affect the industries of both countries?
5. What were the circumstances that led England to adopt free trade while the United States and Germany adopted protective tariff systems?
6. In what way is tenement house labor detrimental to the public welfare? How does it affect children?
7. What are the advantages of "big business"? What are the disadvantages under a *laissez faire* policy?
8. What is the difference between the old immigration to America and the new? What motives have prompted each? Would immigrants still come in great numbers if the restrictions were removed? Explain.
9. How did the Civil War stimulate manufacturing in the South? What is meant by the New South?

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Prepare reports on local industries, showing how they have been affected by inventions, where the products are shipped, the labor conditions, and the importance to the community.

II. Discuss (1) coal mining in the United States; (2) the steel industry; (3) the automobile industry; (4) meat packing factories; and any others that may be chosen. Many firms publish free pamphlets. A report on the importance of Niagara Falls in producing electric power will prove interesting.

III. Prepare short biographical sketches of (1) Samuel Gompers, (2) Joseph Lister, (3) Jane Addams.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

RIIS	<i>How the Other Half Lives</i>	Scribner
GOMPERS	<i>Seventy Years of Life and Labor</i>	Dutton
BOK	<i>Americanization of Edward Bok</i>	Scribner

EPOCH NINE

IMPERIALISM AND CONFLICT

Epoch Eight described the Industrial Revolution and told of Reform movements in Europe and America. Power-driven machinery was invented. Great strides were made in health and sanitation by scientists and medical men. Transportation and communication were cheapened and quickened. The laboring classes united and began to wage a successful fight for economic justice, even as they fought for political justice during those same years.

The new Industrial Age—the age of steam, gas, and electricity—produced new problems. Nations began to compete with one another for raw materials, such as oil, coal, rubber, metals, and minerals. They sought those products either in undeveloped savage countries, like Africa and Oceanica, or in the backward nations of Asia. This craze for new dominions, called Imperialism, was accomplished by continual warfare, secret alliances, and political intrigues. It finally led to the greatest struggle in the annals of history, the World War. This Epoch, Imperialism and Conflict, will bring us well into the twentieth century.

CHAPTER XXXV

THE PARTITION OF AFRICA

In Epoch Six we witnessed a keen rivalry on the part of European countries for the possession and colonization of America, portions of Asia, the coastlands of Africa, and certain islands of the sea. From the Peace of Paris (1763) until about the middle of the nineteenth century there was a lull in this bitter competition.

Colonial Empires after the Treaty of Paris. The Peace of Paris (Chapter XXVI), it will be remembered, closed the Seven Years' War. That conflict had spread from Europe to America and India. It had involved nearly all of the colonizing countries. When the terms of the treaty were agreed upon, England had outstripped all of her rivals for colonial power. France retained a few scattered possessions, but was bankrupt and on the verge of revolution. Spain still held South America and settlements in the Atlantic and Pacific. Her influence as a world power had long been broken, and was steadily declining. Russia had occupied Siberia and gained a foothold in Alaska. Portugal, Denmark, and Holland had a few colonies in different quarters of the globe. But aside from the English East India Company, which remained aggressive in its struggle for India, there was little interest in colonization for nearly a century.

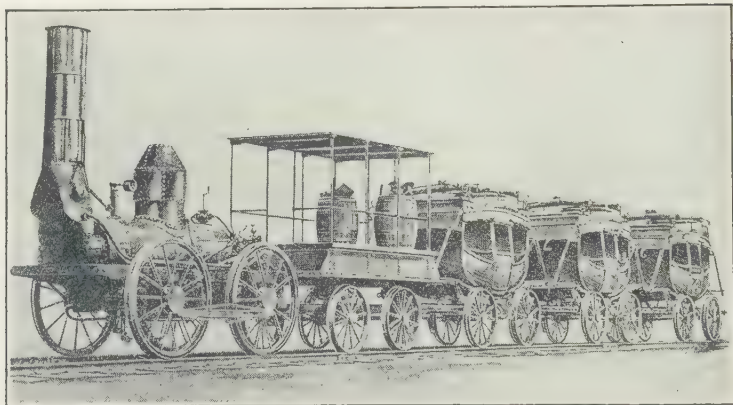
Europe in the Early Nineteenth Century. During the fifty years which followed our war for independence, Europe was vitally concerned with affairs at home. There was little time for colonial expansion, for in rapid succession there followed the French Revolution, the Napoleonic Wars, the reconstruction of Europe, and the troublesome Metternich Era. In 1815, at the Congress of Vienna (Chapter XXX), the colonial possessions of the several warring nations changed hands. During the next decade Spain lost her South American colonies. For another decade Europe had little concern for

foreign possessions. But by this time the Industrial Revolution was well under way. A great change was taking place in the industrial, commercial, and social life of the more advanced nations. Toward the middle of the century there rapidly developed among those nations a great desire for colonial possessions. This new interest in colonization and world expansion has been called modern imperialism. That term requires a brief explanation.

Imperialism. Imperialism, according to Webster's dictionary, is "the policy, practice or advocacy or acquiescing in the extension of the control, dominion, or empire of a nation; as (a) by the acquirement of new territories or dependencies, especially when lying outside of a nation's natural boundaries, or (b) by the extension of its rule over other races of mankind, as where commerce demands the protection of the flag."

The Industrial Revolution and Commerce. The great mechanical inventions and scientific progress which produced the Industrial Revolution were responsible for this new expansion movement. A wealthy middle class arose—the capitalists. Machinery propelled by steam, gas, and electricity enabled manufacturers to produce a surplus of goods. Railroads, steamboats, telegraph and telephone lines cheapened as well as quickened transportation and communication. The new age created new problems. Oil, coal, rubber, metals, and minerals became necessities—prizes for which nations competed. They sought these advantages either in the undeveloped savage countries like Africa and Oceanica or in the backward nations of Asia. Under this new imperialism capitalists invested their money in developing the resources of those lands. Merchants competed for the control of foreign markets, where they could either sell their surplus goods or purchase raw materials.

Forms of Imperialism. Thus it was that a new era of expansion was launched. Sometimes this imperialism took the form of conquest and colonization; sometimes it was accomplished by peaceful annexation, and at other times by mere brigandage and theft. In some cases a territory was merely brought under the control of a nation. Such territory was called a "protectorate." At times a nation or its investors exercised so much influence over the native govern-

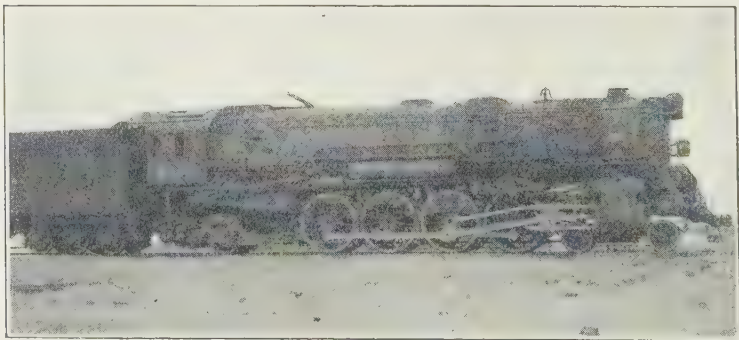


AN EARLY RAILROAD TRAIN

This picture and the one below serve to emphasize the wonderful advance that was made in transportation in less than a century. Such advances went far to stimulate territorial expansion.

ment of some country as to be given all of the commercial privileges. This last type of imperialism was called a "sphere of influence."

Motives for Migrations. So a great wave of migration took place during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. European and American engineers, mechanics, and laborers built railroads, developed mines, and introduced modern



A MODERN LOCOMOTIVE AND TENDER

This locomotive and a portion of the tender are together as long as the entire train shown in the above illustration.

methods of farming in the less progressive countries. In the vanguard of this movement Christian missionaries carried western civilization to the far corners of the earth. The overpopulation and economic depression in Europe induced thousands to emigrate either to America or to the new colonies of their native land. The pride of nationalism demanded the prestige of a large colonial empire. Armies and navies were transported throughout the world to protect national interests. There were hundreds of motives for this great migratory movement.

Results of Imperialism. Imperialism has its opponents and it has its defenders. It has produced much that is good, and it has produced much that is evil. But the imperialistic methods used by most countries in the majority of cases were unjustifiable. While people in defenseless and backward countries were often benefited, they were more often exploited. Among the competing nations a bitter rivalry, attended by continual conflicts, resulted. Jealousies and hatreds were fostered. Huge armies and navies were created. Ingenious engines and methods of taking human life in war were invented. Then came the most gigantic and terrible struggle in all the annals of history—the World War.

Problem of Epoch Nine. The problem of the nations during this Epoch was to secure colonies, protectorates, and spheres of influence. In the United States the conestoga wagon had given way to the railroad, and the boundaries of our republic reached the Pacific. By purchase, annexation, and war we gained colonial possessions and became a leading power in world affairs. After the unification of Italy and Germany, in 1871, those two countries as well as Belgium entered the race. In all nations there were, of course, anti-imperialists, and in all nations there were other problems. But the results of the unscrupulous method of imperialism practiced by most nations, that method which did not consider the rights of others, were to affect mankind more than any other problem of the age.

The new colonial movement took place in different parts of the world at about the same time. But for convenience' sake we will begin with the partition of Africa by the European powers.

Summary of African History. Authentic history began in northern Africa. Egypt was the cradle of early civilization. To the west on the Mediterranean coast the Phœnician colony of Carthage was founded. Centuries passed and then Greek civilization had its influence on North Africa. In the second century B.C. the Carthaginians rose to dispute unsuccessfully the growing power of Rome. In the fifth century A.D. the barbarian invaders from eastern Europe, particularly the Vandals, settled along the northwestern coast. A few centuries later the Mohammedans entered upon an era of conquest, and all of North Africa was brought under their sway. The voyage of the early Phœnicians around the continent of Africa had little influence on the geographical knowledge of succeeding peoples. It was not until the Portuguese explorations of the fifteenth century that any knowledge of the vast extent of that continent was gained. During and after the Commercial Revolution several of the European countries established trading posts along the western coast. The eastern coast was occupied by the Mohammedan Arabs. Like the people from Europe, on the opposite coast, their chief occupation was the cruel slave trade.

Nineteenth Century Africa. In the early part of the nineteenth century Egypt, Tripoli, Tunis, and Algeria were a part of the Turkish Empire. Morocco, which was independent, was governed by a Sultan. In the east was the independent Christian kingdom of Abyssinia. Along the western and southern coasts were scattered a few colonies of European white men; while along the eastern coast the Arabs plied their trade.

Why Africa Remained the "Dark Continent." Africa has a total area three times the size of Europe. But what of the vast interior? To the outside world Africa had held that secret closely guarded for ages. Africa was entirely surrounded by water with the exception of the Isthmus of Suez. It has an almost unbroken coast line, with few sheltering harbors. A short distance from the coasts a broad plateau rises abruptly. The strips between are often barren and swampy. South of Egypt, Tripoli, Tunis, Algeria, and Morocco lies the great Sahara Desert. Larger in area than the United States, the dry hot sands of the Sahara stretch across

the continent. For centuries it proved a barrier holding in check the civilization of the north, and Africa remained the "Dark Continent."

Land and People of Interior Africa. But about the middle of the nineteenth century daring white men began to explore the inland regions, and gradually the veil of darkness was lifted. Most of these explorers entered by way of the southwest settlements, the home of the friendly Hottentot natives. They faced innumerable dangers and hardships. They entered dark forests and jungle lands, inhabited by fierce and wonderful animal life. They sickened and many of their numbers died from the tropical fevers; but undaunted, the white men pushed on. They traced and mapped the courses of large rivers. They discovered mountains, lakes, and great falls. They encountered hostile native tribes. As they left the friendly Hottentots of the south, and moved northward across the mountains, they came in contact with the Bushmen. These were a yellow skinned people, fierce and cruel dwarfs. To the northeast lay the powerful Zulu-Kaffir State. The Zulus—tall, vigorous, and powerful—long defended their country against the invasion of the white man. But the Europeans pushed on into the great forests of central Africa inhabited by the Bantu tribes. From the Guinea coast eastward to the Nile the pioneers encountered the Sudan negroes. It was from that coast land along the Gulf of Guinea that the majority of negroes were exported to America as slaves.

England Acquires Cape Colony. In the seventeenth century the Dutch had established a colony in South Africa at the Cape of Good Hope. During the Napoleonic Wars Holland had sided with Napoleon. In 1806 Great Britain seized the Dutch settlement of Cape Colony, in South Africa. A few years later England paid Holland nearly thirty million dollars compensation. There were at that time about 10,000 Dutch settlers, called Boers (farmers), in Cape Colony. In addition there were several thousand Germans and French Huguenots (hū'gē-nōtz), about 17,000 Hottentots, and some 30,000 slaves.

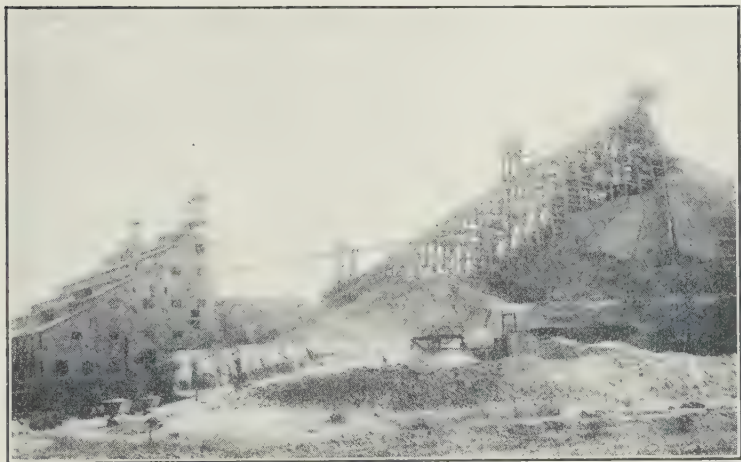
The "Great Trek." Trouble between Boer and Briton began immediately. The Boers were dissatisfied with British

rule. They resented the fact that English was made the official language in all court proceedings. In 1834 England emancipated all the slaves in South Africa. The British government paid the former slave owners about fifteen million dollars to compensate them for their loss. But the Boers were indignant because of this interference, and decided to migrate northward to new lands and set up an independent government of their own. From 1836 to 1840 thousands of Boers left Cape Colony. Day after day rude carts, loaded with household goods and drawn by oxen, were driven northward by departing families. This migration of the Boers is known in history as the "Great Trek."

South Africa in 1869. Some of these Boers crossed the Orange River and established the Orange Free State. Others settled to the northeast of Cape Colony, in Natal (nâ-täl'). A few years later several thousands more trekked north from the Orange Free State across the Vaal River. There they founded the Transvaal (trâns-väl') republic. In 1843 the British annexed Natal. The Orange Free State and Transvaal, after several conflicts and much discussion with Great Britain, were recognized as independent. So in 1869 South Africa consisted of Cape Colony and Natal under British rule, and the independent republics of Transvaal and the Orange Free State under the Boers.

Discovery of Diamond and Gold Fields. The peace thus established was not long lived. In 1869 there was discovered on the western border of the Orange Free State the famous Kimberley diamond fields. Fifteen years later the richest and most productive gold mines in the world were opened in the Transvaal. People from all parts of the world, but chiefly the English, rushed to these places. What the British Parliament a few years before had considered unimportant territories were now among the wealthiest of the globe. Soon Boer and Briton were to clash again. But meanwhile the work of explorers, especially of Livingstone (lĭv'ing-stŭn) and Stanley, was shedding more light on the "Dark Continent."

David Livingstone. In 1841 David Livingstone, an Englishman, arrived in Cape Town, South Africa. Undaunted he left the last outpost of civilization and pushed northward into



KIMBERLEY DIAMOND MINE

After the discovery of diamonds on the western border of the Orange Free State, in 1869, people from all parts of the world rushed to the Kimberley diamond fields.

Bechuanaland (běch'ōō-ä'ná-länd). Wherever he went he established churches and schools. He taught the black men how to improve their farming and to irrigate their lands. He did everything within his power to rid Africa of the frightful slave trade. For this he encountered the enmity of the Boers, the Portuguese, and the Arabs. His missionary work and explorations covered a period of more than thirty years. During that time he traveled northward nearly to the equator, and across Africa from the Atlantic to the Indian Ocean. He traced the course of the Zambezi River and the Upper Congo. He explored the regions around Lake Nyasa (nyä'sü) and Lake Tanganyika (tän'gän-yē'kă). He discovered the famous Victoria Falls of the Zambezi (zâm-bē'zê). His books describing his work and adventures and the lands and people of Africa were read eagerly in Europe and America. In 1866 Livingstone set out to discover the sources of the Nile River. For the next five years the outside world heard nothing of the famed missionary-explorer. Everyone thought him dead. But James Gordon Bennett, editor of the New York *Herald*, had

dispatched one of his reporters, Henry M. Stanley, to "go find Livingstone."

The Relief Party. On November 10, 1871, Livingstone was at Ujiji (*ōō-jē'jê*), a village on Lake Tanganyika. He had failed to find the source of the Nile. Disappointed, his body racked by pain and disease, with his food supply almost gone, Livingstone was in desperate straits. But rescue was near at hand. A relief party, bearing aloft the American flag, entered the village. Stanley had arrived.



LIVINGSTONE'S HOME IN UJJI

Death of Livingstone, 1873. Livingstone could not be persuaded to return. He was determined to find the source of the Nile. Bidding farewell to the relief party, he and his African companions traveled westward. But the journey overtaxed his remaining strength and endurance, and in the spring of 1873 he died. His comrades, the black men, preserved his body as best they could and carried it half way across Africa to Zanzibar, on the Indian coast. This last journey was a

token of the love and esteem in which Livingstone was held by the natives. From Zanzibar the body was taken to England and buried in Westminster Abbey, among the nation's great. Livingstone was dead, but he had explored a continent and opened it for the settlement of an outer world. This part of his work was continued by Stanley.

Henry M. Stanley, 1841-1904. Henry M. Stanley, whose real name was John Rowlands, was born in Wales in 1841. As a boy he was extremely poor. He ran away to sea, and on one of his journeys landed in New Orleans. He was adopted by Henry M. Stanley and took his adopted father's name. During the Civil War he fought first in the Confederate Army and then in the Federal Navy. After the war he became a newspaper correspondent. Later in life he again became a British subject, was elected to Parliament, and knighted.

His African* Journey. From 1874 to 1878 Stanley journeyed across Africa. He explored the equatorial lake region and the Congo River. The latter he discovered to be one of the largest rivers in the world. Stanley saw that the Congo region (Central Africa) was rich in rubber, ivory, and palm oil. He tried to interest European business men in the development of those resources. Stanley has left several interesting volumes describing his journeys in that strange land.

Belgium in Africa. Leopold II, King of Belgium, was one of the first to see the advantages of the vast Congo basin. In 1876 he called a conference of the Great Powers to meet in Brussels. This resulted in the formation of the International African Association. The object of the association was to explore and civilize central Africa. Each nation was to supply funds to finance the proposition. Two years later a Belgian company was formed for the same purpose. The expense of the new enterprise was borne by Leopold personally. In 1879 he employed Stanley as an agent for the company. During the next five years the Anglo-American explorer made more than four hundred treaties with native chiefs in the Congo, and established many trading posts.

The Belgian Congo. In 1885 Leopold II assumed the sovereignty of the so-called Congo Free State. He did more, he claimed it as his personal property. His officials forced



HENRY MORTON STANLEY

the natives to work in the mines, to help construct railroad lines, to collect rubber juice, and to do other disagreeable labor. These negro workers were cruelly punished. If an African chieftain refused to supply laborers his village was burned. Mission stations had been established, it is true,

but they had no power to stop this evil practice. Immense wealth flowed into the personal coffers of Leopold. When news of his shameful methods reached Europe and America a storm of indignation arose. In 1908 the Congo Free State was annexed to Belgium and placed under the control of the Belgian parliament. This is now known as the Belgian Congo, a territory larger than Germany, France, Spain, Italy, Greece, and England combined.

Germany in Africa. After the unification of Germany, in 1870, the rulers of that country became ambitious for the possession of a colonial empire. In the opening of Africa they saw their opportunity. During the years from 1885 to 1890 German agents went up and down Africa persuading native chiefs to cede them large tracts of land. In this way they received over a million square miles of African territory. On the eastern coast they controlled German East Africa, and in the west they ruled over German Southwest Africa, the Kameruns, and Togoland. The Germans established schools and missions; and then, to offset the good work, exploited the natives and even massacred them by the thousands.

Portugal in Africa. The Portuguese had long been established in Africa, but principally as a slave trading people. As soon as the real value of the country was discovered Portugal laid claim to vast stretches of territory. Many of these claims were considered absurd, but in the scramble Portugal received a goodly share of the spoils. Besides the Cape Verde Islands and Portuguese Guinea, she owns Angola in West Africa and Mozambique (mō-zām-bēk') or East Africa.

Spain and Italy in Africa. The Spanish possessions in Africa include the Canary Islands, a portion of the north-western coast, and a small part of northern Morocco. Like Germany, Italy's control of foreign possessions was delayed until after 1870. She then gained Eritrea (ā'rē-trē'ä) and Italian Somaliland (sō-mä'lê-länd) on the eastern coast. The Italian government made an attempt to annex Abyssinia, but its armies were repulsed by the Abyssinians, and that ancient kingdom retained its independence.

Republic of Liberia. In 1847 there was organized on the western coast the independent republic of Liberia. This coun-

try was settled by former negro slaves from the United States. Its population now consists of some 100,000 civilized Christian negroes and about 2,000,000 uncivilized natives. Its government is similar to that of our own country. Since 1912 the collecting of customs duties has been under our control. In 1925 Liberia had a bonded indebtedness of \$1,700,000 which had been floated by a group of New York bankers.

The French in Africa during the "Old Régime." The total area of the French possessions in Africa is greater than that of any other nation. A great deal of this, however, consists of the Sahara Desert. In the seventeenth century France had established a few trading posts and slave sheds on the western coast, near the mouth of the Senegal (sěn'è-gôl') River. Later, under Louis XIV, the island of Madagascar was annexed. In 1830, during the reign of Charles X, the French occupied Algeria.

The United States Navy and the Barbary Pirates. For centuries the Mohammedan North African states had been preying on foreign commerce in the Mediterranean Sea. During Washington's administration our government had been forced to pay tribute money to the pirates of these Barbary nations. Between 1801 and 1804 our small navy entered several of the Barbary ports, bombarded the cities, and forced the guilty rulers to cease collecting blackmail.

The French in Africa. It was partly due to the Algerian pirates' attack on French commerce that Charles X, and later Louis Philippe, entered Algeria. Another reason was to be found in the internal condition of France itself. That country had just passed through the Napoleonic Wars. Metternich was endeavoring to restore absolutism. The spirit of revolt was again seething in the French kingdom. The rulers concluded that the grandeur of a foreign conquest would divert the attention of the people from their local grievances. Several excuses were found to begin the war. In the first place a French vessel in the harbor of Algiers was fired upon. In the second place the Dey (ruler of Algiers) hit the French consul in the face with a fly swatter. This last act was enough. A long, hard conflict with the Arab tribesmen ensued.

French Annexations. In 1847 France annexed Algeria. A little more than thirty years later, despite the protests of

the Sultan of Turkey, Tunis was occupied and made a protectorate of France. The French gained a considerable portion of the Congo during the European scramble for Africa. Since 1912 they have exercised a protectorate over Morocco. But meanwhile important events were taking place in the southern part of Africa.

Cecil Rhodes, 1853-1902. In 1870 there appeared in South Africa a young Oxford University student by the name of Cecil Rhodes. He was but seventeen years old, but had been compelled to leave school because of ill health. He arrived just in time to join the rush to the Kimberley diamond fields. In a short time he had amassed a fortune. Later he gained control of the diamond and gold mining interests of South Africa. He developed that vast territory which now bears his name—Rhodesia—and the land south of it called Bechuanaland. Rhodes became known as the "Empire Builder" and wielded almost absolute power in South Africa.



CECIL RHODES

With a large part of his fortune Cecil Rhodes provided for nearly two hundred three-year scholarships at the University of Oxford. These scholarships, now worth \$2,000 a year, are given to selected students from the British colonies and the United States. In our country each state is allowed to select two candidates.

Grievances of Boer and Briton. But the rush that took Cecil Rhodes to the diamond fields near the Transvaal, and later to the gold mines near the Orange Free State, resulted in the Boer War. Thousands of Englishmen poured into those countries. Johannesburg, in the heart of the mining district,

in a few years had more than 100,000 inhabitants, mostly Englishmen. The Boers who had taken part in the Great Trek, in order to enjoy their own government and freedom, resented the coming of these Uitlanders (foreigners). They refused to give the newcomers a share in their government. To do so, they argued, would practically place their republics in the hands of foreigners, for the Boers would soon be outnumbered. The Uitlanders claimed that they paid the larger share of taxes to support the governments and that they should have some voice in making the laws. But the Boers, jealous of their independence, would not even grant them the right to vote.

The Jameson Raid, 1895. In 1895 Dr. Jameson, administrator of Rhodesia, with a few hundred followers invaded the Transvaal. His apparent object was to overthrow the government. The raiders were captured by the Boers and handed over to the British authorities. The Boers, with good reason, suspected that Cecil Rhodes was back of the Jameson raid. A great deal of ill feeling was created among both parties. The two republics formed an alliance and began to arm. England became alarmed, fearing that they would attack Cape Colony and Natal. The Boers accused the English of trying to find an excuse to annex their lands.

The Boer War, 1899-1902. Such was the situation in 1899, when the two little republics declared war on Great Britain. The struggle dragged on for several years. Many people throughout the world, as well as in England, sympathized with the Boers. The Dutch farmers fought stubbornly and valiantly, but in the end were overcome by the great number of reinforcements that Great Britain was able to put in the field.

Union of South Africa. The former Boer republics were soon granted self-government. In 1909 representatives from Cape Colony, Natal, the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal met and formed the Union of South Africa. The legislature consists of a senate with forty members, eight of whom are appointed, and an assembly with one hundred thirty-four members, all elected by the people. The Crown appoints a Governor-General, and as in England the country has its own premier. Pretoria is the seat of the executive branch

of government, and Cape Town the seat of the legislative branch.

We now turn to the conflicting interests of the European powers in northern Africa.



PALACE OF JUSTICE, PRETORIA

Nowhere, perhaps, is progress more apparent than in the contrast between native Africa and the cities where European influence has made itself felt. Government buildings in the principal state capitals are as modern and dignified as those of their parent countries.

The Suez Canal. After years of fighting against Turkey, Egypt in 1865 became practically independent. The Egyptian ruler, called the Khedive, while forced to pay tribute to the Turkish government, managed the affairs of his realm. Three years later the Suez Canal, connecting the Red Sea with the Mediterranean, was completed. That work had been accomplished mostly with the aid of French capital. The English refused to assist in the enterprise; at first they even opposed it. But with her possessions in India, England soon saw the advantage of controlling the Suez Canal. In 1875 her opportunity came. The extravagant Khedive was sorely pressed for money. He appealed to Great Britain for aid. The shrewd Disraeli saw his chance and purchased for the government nearly 200,000 shares of the Khedive's canal stock. The

French and English governments then forced the Khedive to allow them to supervise the finances of Egypt.

British Control of Egypt. The Egyptians resented this foreign interference, and in 1882, with the cry of "Egypt for the Egyptians," they rose in rebellion. The French government refused to cooperate with the British in suppressing the revolt. English troops were ordered to the Nile and a semblance of order was restored. Great Britain now occupied and practically controlled Egypt and the land to the south known as the Sudan.



RAILROAD STATION AT KHARTUM

Prominent as the scene of an Anglo-Egyptian struggle for supremacy, Khartum will undoubtedly assume a new importance with the completion of the Cape-to-Cairo railway. Egyptian railway cars are of wood and very light in comparison with our heavy steel coaches. They are painted white to reflect the glare of the desert sun.

Massacre at Khartum. The people of the Sudan had long been oppressed by Egypt. About the time of the English occupation these semi-civilized tribes rose in revolt, under a religious leader who claimed to be the "Mahdi" or Prophet, and defeated the Egyptian armies. England hesitated about defending the Sudan. In 1885 the English general, Charles George Gordon, and 11,000 of his men were massacred at Khartum (kär'tōom'). Twelve years later England avenged

the massacre at Khartum. Lord Kitchener, who had taken a prominent part in the Boer War, recovered the Sudan for the British.

Independence of Egypt. From 1915 to 1922 Egypt and the Sudan were governed as a Protectorate of the British Empire. In the latter year, however, the country was recognized as an independent kingdom. However, the British appointed a High Commissioner, and Great Britain still retains the power to protect her communications and her financial interests.

The Fashoda Affair. France, it will be remembered, had taken possession of all the western Sudan. That country induced Germany to give up all claim to central Sudan. The French next attempted to gain the eastern Sudan, which would give them dominion over that vast territory from the eastern coast to the borders of Abyssinia. In 1898 Captain Marchand led a French expedition into the Egyptian Sudan. He raised the French flag over the military post at Fashoda (fä-shō'dä), on the Nile. The British resented this and Anglo-Egyptian forces hurried south. France and England were on the verge of war. But after a few concessions on both sides, the French gracefully withdrew.

The Algecirras Conference, 1905. In 1904 France recognized Great Britain's claim to Egypt. The British, in return, recognized the French claims in Morocco. The next year Germany objected to the occupation of Morocco by France. The ruler of the German Empire, William II, paid a visit to the Sultan at Tangier and recognized him as the independent ruler of Morocco. France resented this, and war seemed imminent. Under the influence of Theodore Roosevelt, President of the United States, an international congress met at Algecirras (äl'jê-sê'räs), Spain, to settle the dispute. There it was decided that the independence of the Sultan should be recognized, but the French were allowed to exercise police power over the country. This was a victory for the German Kaiser, who had thwarted the French plan to annex Morocco.

The Agadir Incident, 1907. In 1907 French citizens were attacked by Moroccans. Civil war was going on at the same time between the Sultan and a pretender to the throne. France came to the aid of the Sultan with money and troops.

In 1911 a French army entered Fez, the capital of Morocco. France refused to withdraw her troops until order was restored. Germany, fearing that France intended to annex the country, sent a warship, the *Panther*, to the harbor of Agadir. The excuse of the German Emperor was that he desired to protect German interests in Morocco. Europe was on the brink of war. European nations had been spending enormous sums on their armies and navies. England notified Germany that she would stand with France. The German Emperor then agreed to a French protectorate over Morocco, but for this concession France was compelled to give up a part of the Congo to Germany. A great struggle had only been delayed. An unsuspecting world turned its attention to other matters.

Italy in Africa. Italy, a late arrival in this scramble for colonial possessions, was desirous of gaining Tripoli, another Turkish province. In 1901 France promised Italy that she would not oppose her in the seizure of that country. In 1911 an Italian army invaded Tripoli and war with Turkey followed. Within a year the conflict was over. Tripoli and Cyrenaica (sīr'ê-nā'ī-kā) were annexed to Italy and are now known as the province of Libya.

The Far East. So by 1914 the African continent had been partitioned. The natural resources had been tapped, improvements had been made, and the progress of the country was marked. On the other hand, countless lives had been needlessly sacrificed and national hatreds fostered. During this same period similar methods were being used in the Europeanization of the Far East. However, two Asiatic countries, China and Japan, retained their nationality and in a few years the latter was to take its place among the great World Powers.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Explain why America was colonized long before Africa. What motives prompted the colonization of each?
2. Make a list of the ways in which you think Africa was benefited by European colonization.
3. How did French and British interests in Africa conflict? How did French and German interests in Africa conflict?
4. What part would you say imperialism played in the Boer War?



5. Why were Italy and Germany so late in acquiring colonial possessions?
6. How was the United States affected by events in Africa during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries?
7. In 1904 England and France settled all their north African difficulties. The two countries made a friendly agreement, called "the Entente Cordiale." This was practically an alliance. Since the Norman Conquest of England the two nations had been at odds. Review the relations between France and England from the days of William the Conqueror and name the wars in which they opposed one another.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Individual members of a committee may make a map of the African possessions of each of the following countries: England, France, Italy, Spain, Belgium. The committee should report on the history of those possessions, the natural resources, inhabitants, animal life, etc.

II. Make special reports from (1) Livingstone's *Missionary Travels*; (2) those books of Stanley's that read stranger than fiction—*How I Found Livingstone*; *Through the Dark Continent*; *In Darkest Africa*.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

LUCAS	<i>The Partition of Africa</i>	Oxford
BRICE	<i>David Livingstone</i>	Partridge

CHAPTER XXXVI

THE FAR EAST AND OCEANICA

China in the 17th Century. We have had little cause to mention China since the days of Kublai Khan and Marco Polo in the thirteenth century, and the invading Manchu Tartars in 1644. Progress in China at the beginning of the seventeenth century was as far advanced as that of the nations in Christendom. Her natural resources and great inland waterways, her physical barriers, and her firm conviction that she possessed a civilization superior to that of western Europe led China to adopt a policy of isolation under the Manchu

rulers. Except for a little trade carried on with Russia, Portugal, Holland, and England, the Chinese did not encourage or foster foreign relations.

China in the 19th Century. During the course of the next three hundred years the more advanced nations abolished autocratic government. Their industrial and home life had been altered by scientific progress and social reform. But during these same years China, out of touch with the outside world, had made little progress. The Chinese of the nineteenth century were living pretty much as their ancestors of the seventeenth century had lived. They were still the victims of an autocratic government. In this respect, however, they had not fallen behind Germany and Russia. The Chinese were still living in the same kind of homes, with no more conveniences than their forefathers had. They still carried on their farming, manufacturing, and commerce with the same tools and methods as of old. In short, they were looked upon as a backward people and their "closed door" policy had made them so.

British India on the Border of China. The acquisition of India by the English had brought the far-flung boundaries of the British Empire to the southern borders of China. The vast undeveloped natural resources, the excellent opportunities for markets, and the backwardness and apparent weakness of these people in the Far East aroused the greed of the imperialistic nations of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Those nations began to carve out for themselves "spheres of influence" in China. They were preparing to partition it, just as they were doing at this very time in Africa. Great Britain was the first country to break down the barrier of Chinese isolation and commence the European exploitation of the Far East. The circumstances which led to that event were as follows.

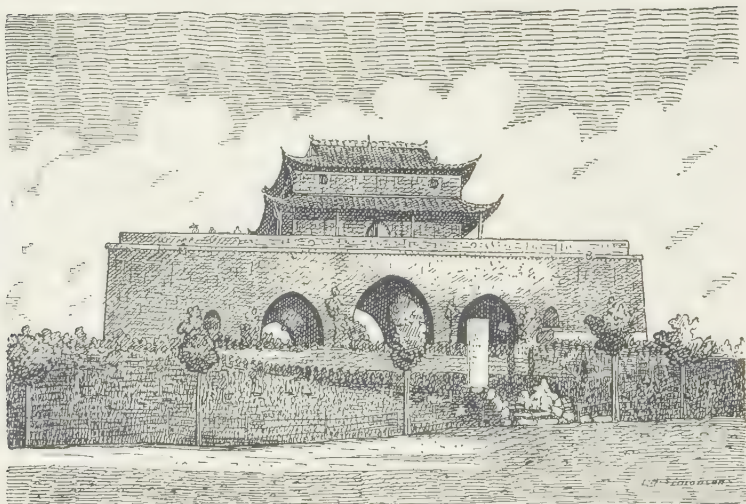
The English in Canton. The Chinese government had given the English East India Company permission to carry on trade in Canton. This port was open to the "barbarians" or "foreign devils" during specified times and under certain restrictions. In 1833 the political power of the East India Company was taken over by the English parliament. The Chinese governor at Canton, however, refused to have any

dealings with the officials of the British government. This was resented by England's representatives and hard feelings resulted. The two countries were soon at war concerning the opium trade.

The Opium War, 1840-1842. More than a century before this the people of China had been forbidden by their ruler to use opium except for medicinal purposes. The habit of opium smoking had grown upon so many people, and caused such disastrous results, that the government felt compelled to take this step. The English East India Company controlled the opium trade of India. The prohibition of opium smoking in China would lessen the profits of the British opium traders. So, unable to influence the officials of China to repeal the law, the English smuggled great quantities of opium into the port of Canton. Whenever possible the Chinese government confiscated the opium, hoping in this way to put an end to the smuggling. In 1839 Great Britain demanded that China pay for all the opium taken in this manner. China refused, and in 1840 England declared war. A British fleet and expeditionary force was ordered to China. The trained English troops, equipped with modern firearms, captured several cities and the Chinese were compelled to surrender. Thus the Opium War (1840-1842) was ended and an imperialistic peace was forced upon China.

Treaty of Nanking, 1843. By the Treaty of Nanking, China had to pay a heavy indemnity and cede to the British the island of Hongkong. Four other coast towns, including Shanghai, were opened to English commerce. It was further stipulated that Great Britain was to have the exclusive right to try and punish British subjects who committed crimes on Chinese soil. This is known as an extraterritorial right. It was the beginning of a series of unequal treaties, that the Chinese today are trying to undo.

The Opium Question. The importation of opium was legalized, and China, after resisting for nearly twenty years, agreed to collect import duties. Since the Chinese could not stop the importation of opium, they started to plant and cultivate the poppy themselves. This was a severe blow to British profits. The English had waged war against a weaker people. They waged it in the interest of trade—and a hideous



THE DRUM TOWER, NANKING, CHINA

In this tower the Ming Emperor, Hung Wu, kept the great drum with which he called his soldiers when the city was attacked.

trade. In 1924 an International Opium Conference was held in Geneva (jê-nê'vâ) under the auspices of the League of Nations. Its object was to find some means to suppress the habit of opium smoking. Due to the antagonism of the British representative, the conference failed to reach any agreement, and opium smoking still remains the curse of the Far East.

The United States in the Far East. Although China was slow in realizing it, the Treaty of Nanking ended her isolation. The next year, 1844, Caleb Cushing was sent by the United States government to secure a commercial treaty from the Chinese. He was successful and five "treaty ports" were opened to American commerce. Extraterritorial privileges were secured in all of them. Thomas Jefferson had said: "Our first and fundamental maxim should be never to entangle ourselves in the broils of Europe; our second, never to suffer Europe to intermeddle with 'cis-Atlantic affairs'" (affairs on this side of the Atlantic). This American policy of isolation was emphasized in the Monroe Doctrine, just twenty years

before our treaty with China. It is interesting to note here that while we held aloof from European affairs, our attitude toward the Far East was quite different. Very early we began to seek spheres of influence and possessions in the Pacific. We entered the race for colonial expansion.

The five treaty ports of China were opened to France, Germany, Belgium, and other European nations shortly after the Opium War.

Second Chinese War, 1856-1860. Great Britain and France declared war on China in 1856. The British flag had been insulted and a French missionary had been murdered. For the second time the Chinese were defeated, and sued for peace in 1860. They were ordered to open six more ports to foreign commerce, to permit the opium trade, and to protect European merchants and missionaries. Within the next few years Napoleon III and his successors annexed what is now French Indo-China.

Perry Opens the Ports of Japan, 1853-1854. Another nation to feel the effect of the new expansion movement was the feudal island-Empire of Japan (Chapter XXVI). In the seventeenth century, already noted, the Japanese forbade Christian worship, closed their ports to foreign commerce, turned their backs on western civilization, and adopted the Chinese policy of isolation. Several times during the nineteenth century American sailors shipwrecked off the coast of Japan had been mistreated by the natives. In 1853 Commodore Matthew C. Perry, with four United States warships, was ordered to Japanese waters. The following year he secured a favorable commercial treaty from the Shogun (chief noble and assistant to the Mikado). Shipwrecked sailors and American vessels in distress were to be allowed shelter and protection in Japanese harbors. Japan further agreed to open two ports in which Americans could live and trade. Later, Yokohama (*yō'kō-hā'mä*) and other ports were opened to our commerce. Similar treaties were secured by Great Britain, France, Russia, and Holland.

Japan Awed by Foreign Nations. The Japanese nobles or daimios resented this foreign intrusion; and despite the treaties, Europeans and Americans were attacked. In 1863 warships from the United States, England, France, and Hol-

land bombarded several Japanese towns. The people of Nippon were awestricken by the accuracy and destructive power of the foreign artillery. The Japanese realized that the only way to preserve their nationality and the safety of their country was to adopt as soon as possible the civilization of the West.



A NATIVE STREET SCENE IN TOKIO, JAPAN

Modernization of Japan. No country in all history has made such rapid progress as did Japan in the next forty years. During that period one of the most remarkable rulers in Asiatic history, Mutsuhito (1867-1912), reigned as the Mikado. The nobles induced the Shogun to give up his feudal powers, which were then placed in the hands of Mutsuhito. Three years later feudalism was abolished, and with it serfdom came to an end. In his famous Charter Oath the Mikado promised to break away from the old customs, grant religious freedom, favor political and social reforms, and send students throughout the world who would bring back the best that civilized nations had to offer. Foreigners were welcomed and

the schools were ordered to teach English. A national army based on the Prussian military system was established to take the place of the personal following of the recent feudal lords. In 1889 the Japanese were given a constitution. It provided for a house of lords, a house of representatives, and a cabinet. The constitution and government were based upon those of the German Empire and were not democratic. The cabinet was not responsible to Parliament, and the lower classes were not allowed to vote. Factories were built and modern machinery introduced; up-to-date methods in agriculture and fruit growing were adopted. In the short space of thirty years Japan had created a modern army and navy. She had developed her manufacturing and commerce to such an extent that she was considered a serious rival of European and American countries. Like them she began to seek foreign markets; like them she became imperialistic; and like them she turned toward China.



MODERN OFFICE BUILDINGS, TOKIO

Near an age-old moat around the imperial palace grounds. Most Westerners are so fond of the conception of Japan as a colorful land of cherry blossom, kimono, and rickshaw that they easily forget the new Japan where office buildings, automobiles, and European dress are no longer innovations.

Chino-Japanese War, 1894-1895. The peninsula of Korea, opposite the southern part of Japan, was an independent kingdom over which China claimed suzerainty. The Japanese desired to colonize Korea and introduce modern civilization. The King of Korea opposed this and China encouraged him. This resulted in a quarrel and then a war between China and Japan (1894-1895). The Chinese were no match for the well trained, Germanized Japanese army. The Mikado's troops were rapidly pressing toward Peking when China surrendered. The Chinese recognized the independence of Korea and ceded to Japan the island of Formosa (fōr-mō'sā) and the southern part of Manchuria, including Port Arthur.

At this point, Germany, Russia, and France interfered. They compelled Japan to accept a money indemnity and to give back to China southern Manchuria and Port Arthur. The Japanese were allowed to retain Formosa.

Russia in China. The European Powers blocked the imperialism of Japan because it interfered with their own imperialistic plans. No sooner had the Japanese been forced out of the Liaotung (lê-ou'tōong') peninsula and Port Arthur than Russia demanded and received a lease from China for that same territory. She also received concessions which permitted her to build railroads in Manchuria. Port Arthur was fortified and connected by rail with Russia's Trans-Siberian railroad.

European Spheres of Influence. Directly across the Yellow Sea from Korea lies the promontory of Shantung (shän'-toong'). Two German missionaries were killed in that province, and in 1897 a German fleet appeared in the Bay of Kiaochow (kyou'chō'). Troops were landed, and as a compensation for the murdered missionaries Germany received a ninety-nine year lease on the town of Kiaochow and obtained a sphere of influence in all of Shantung. She built railroads, worked the mines, improved the harbors, and Germanized a territory one hundred miles wide and two hundred miles long. France then stepped in and demanded privileges in southern China. At this point Great Britain became alarmed lest she might not receive a share in the spoils. Accordingly she ordered her fleet from Hongkong and secured a lease on Weihaiwei (wā'hī'wā').

Anglo-Japanese Alliance, 1902. Great Britain went the other European nations one better, and in 1902 formed an offensive and defensive alliance with Japan. This meant that should Japan be at war with another nation and a third power enter into a conflict against her, England was to side with Japan, and vice versa. Of course, this agreement was made behind closed doors and without the knowledge or consent of the people whom the signers were supposed to represent. It mattered little to the diplomats of Japan or Great Britain whether the cause of either nation was just. It mattered little to them how many innocent lives in their respective nations were sacrificed, or how much suffering was caused. Nineteenth and early twentieth century secret diplomacy did not always consider the welfare of mankind.

The "Boxers." So at the dawn of the twentieth century the partition of China seemed assured. European and American newspapers were discussing the subject. The only question seemed to be as to how the spoils were to be divided. But there were many Chinese, especially in the northeast, who resented the intrusion of the Europeans. A powerful secret society was organized called the "Order of the Patriotic and Harmonious Fists." Its members were popularly known as the "Boxers." They objected to the opening of the mines and the introduction of the telegraph and telephone lines, the steamboat, and the railroads. The railroads were in some instances built across graveyards, thus violating the Chinese sanctity of ancestral tombs. It became the avowed purpose of the Boxers to expel the western barbarians. They tore up railroads and massacred missionaries and Christian and Chinese converts. In the summer of 1900 they killed the German ambassador and besieged Europeans and Americans in the city of Peking.

The Boxer Rebellion, 1900. The foreigners in Peking were hard pressed for food supplies and means of defense. As the Boxers closed in on the legations it was apparent that all of the people might be massacred. American, Japanese, and European armies combined invaded China, captured Peking, and rescued the besieged. The allied troops killed many of the Chinese and sacked and looted the temples and the palace of the rulers. China was forced to pay an indemnity of

\$320,000,000 and to promise to suppress the Boxers and all other secret societies opposed to foreigners.

Indemnity Money. The United States received as its share of indemnity for damage to American lives and property about \$25,000,000. China was making these payments regularly up until 1906. In that year Dr. Arthur H. Smith, an American missionary and staunch friend of the Chinese, came home on a visit and communicated with President Roosevelt. It was proposed that the indemnity money still owed to the United States (about \$12,000,000) should be given back to China and used to educate Chinese students in American colleges and universities. The following year, through the influence of the President, this was done. This act created a friendly feeling on the part of China for the United States, and a better understanding between these two peoples.



HONGKONG

A busy street in the native quarter.

The Awakening of China. After the Boxer rebellion the "awakening" of China was rapid. Chinese students returned from America and Europe and began to advocate religious,

industrial, and political changes. They saw clearly that the adoption of western civilization was the only thing that could save China. But to stir a naturally conservative nation of some 300,000,000 people was a stupendous task. Nevertheless, within the past twenty-five years this very thing has been done—and more. When we consider the present unsettled condition of that country, its recent awakening must be borne in mind.

The Chinese Revolution of 1912. In 1909 the Chinese were given a constitution which provided for a limited monarchy. The government was to be patterned after the Prussian and Japanese systems. But this was not satisfactory to the more progressive element in China. A social and political revolution began in 1911. Many defied the old Manchu order and cut off their pigtails. Thus a custom centuries old was abandoned. The youthful Manchu Emperor was forced to abdicate, and China became a republic (1912). A milder and much broader constitution was adopted in 1923.



SCENE ALONG THE BUND, SHANGHAI, CHINA

This is one of the most important streets of the Far East. It forms a striking example of European influence on the development of the modern Orient.

Why China Was Not Partitioned. We have told enough to show that the threatened partition of China was not completed. This was forestalled by the Boxer rebellion; by the progressive movement which followed in China; and by the insistence of the United States upon the "open door" policy. This meant that the European powers were to allow citizens of every country an equal chance to trade in China. A fourth factor was the defeat in 1904-1905 of Russia by Japan.

Russo-Japanese War, 1904-1905. Russia, you will recall, had forced Japan to get out of southern Manchuria and Port Arthur, and had then occupied those places herself. Japan resented this at the time, but did not consider either her army or her navy powerful enough to combat Russia. Encouraged by the apparent weakness of Japan, and influenced by unscrupulous Russian capitalists, the Tsar refused to evacuate Manchuria as he had promised and was even preparing to occupy Korea. The peninsula of Korea juts out into the sea very close to the southern islands of Japan. So when Russia ignored the independence of Korea, and sent Cossack troops to fortify that peninsula, Japan became alarmed and objected. The Tsar paid no attention to the objection and the Japanese prepared for war.

Japan. To the outside world it appeared that Japan would easily be crushed. But in 1904 the Japanese government had a strong army and navy. Its officers had been trained in America and Europe. It feared no third party interfering, because of the alliance with Great Britain. Furthermore, the Japanese were near the scene of combat while Russia was a long distance away from it.

Russia. Russia was an absolute monarchy with an autocratic Tsar. It was a vast territory occupied by millions of dissatisfied, downtrodden people. True, in 1861 Alexander II had emancipated forty million serfs. But they could not leave their localities without a government pass. The landlords had been forced to give up much of their land, but the Tsar paid them much more than their dispossessed estates were worth. This money was to be returned to the government by the former serfs, who were to pay for the land in installments and by taxation. The land, as a rule, was not given to an individual but to a whole community. This village community

was called a Russian "mir" (mēr). Freedom of speech, press, and religion were not tolerated. Spies were sent throughout the empire, and all persons suspected of advocating liberal ideas were either imprisoned in local jails or banished to Siberia to end their days laboring in the mines.

Russification of Subject Peoples. The Tsar made up his mind to compel all subject peoples to conform strictly with his conception of government—a Russian autocracy. In Finland and elsewhere the Russian language was to be used in all court proceedings and taught in the public schools. Thousands of Jews were massacred, and thousands more of that race who were fortunate enough to escape the cruel pogroms of 1903 sought refuge in the United States. In this manner the Tsar's policy of Russification was carried on.

Political Parties in Russia. Before the Russo-Japanese War several political parties arose demanding social and governmental reforms. In the cities these new parties were composed of school men, other professional men, merchants, and a few public spirited nobles. They were known as the Constitutional Democrats, and advocated a parliament elected by the people. As a rule, the people in the country districts followed the lead of the laboring men and believed in the teachings of Karl Marx. This group, known as the socialists, longed for the common ownership of factories, lands, and tools of production. Both parties were cruelly persecuted. This treatment, with the conditions described above, did not foster patriotism in Russia; and it was not a united or enthusiastic nation that went into the struggle against Japan. Another handicap lay in the fact that St. Petersburg was three thousand miles from Port Arthur. The two cities were connected by the trans-Siberian railroad, over which all troops and supplies had to be carried.

Japan Defeats Russia. Japan laid siege to Port Arthur, and after ten months the Russians evacuated the place with their colors lowered. The Tsar's troops were poorly fed and equipped. Much of the money appropriated for supplies found its way into the pockets of grafters and dishonest army officials. Far from their base of supplies, mismanaged and discontented, the Russians were no match for the Japanese on land. The Russian Baltic fleet sailed around the Cape of

Good Hope and arrived in the waters around Korea in May. There it encountered the Japanese navy under Admiral Togo and was totally disabled.



TREATY OF PORTSMOUTH

Theodore Roosevelt with the Russian and Japanese peace delegates, 1905.

Treaty of Portsmouth. President Roosevelt invited Japan and Russia to send delegates to America, with the object of settling the war. Both nations accepted the invitation, and on September 5, 1905, signed a treaty of peace at Portsmouth, New Hampshire. Russia was to evacuate Manchuria and leave Port Arthur and the Liaotung peninsula to Japan. Korea was recognized as independent, but later, in 1910, was annexed to Japan. About the same time Russia again as-

sumed control of northern Manchuria and of territory in western Mongolia, although in name at least those places were still a part of China. The Treaty of Portsmouth was a severe blow to Russia's foreign prestige, and hurt the pride of the ruling classes.

Plehve. Meanwhile, vital changes were taking place at home. In 1904 the Tsar, Nicholas II, canceled the land debts of the peasants. He later permitted them to leave their villages and seek employment in other places. This marked the break-up of the village system, the old Russian mir. But this act did not stifle the discontent of the Russian people, as Nicholas had hoped. He still insisted that his power was absolute. He was determined to remain a despot, the autocrat of all the Russians. Before the Russo-Japanese War he had appointed as his minister of the interior a cruel puppet by the name of Pléhve (plā'vē). This man was responsible for thousands of liberals being persecuted and imprisoned. He extended his merciless Tsar-given authority over the Finns and Poles, and is thought to have favored the massacre of the Jews. In 1904 he was assassinated by a Russian student, and there was secret rejoicing throughout the empire.

Liberal Agitation. The death of Plehve was a signal for the liberal parties to agitate. They openly demanded reforms. They asked for a parliament with representative government. They demanded the abolition of the spy system and the cruel imprisonments and exiles. They desired a constitution granting them freedom of speech, press, and religion.

"Bloody Sunday," January 22, 1905. On Sunday morning, a few weeks after the fall of Port Arthur, an immense crowd of workingmen formed in line and marched toward the Imperial palace in St. Petersburg. They went to petition the Tsar in person to relieve their grievances. As they neared the palace they were attacked by Cossacks and regular troops. So many of their number were killed that in Russian history the people remember that day as the "slaughter of Bloody Sunday." In this way another group of men paid the supreme sacrifice, so often the price of progress.

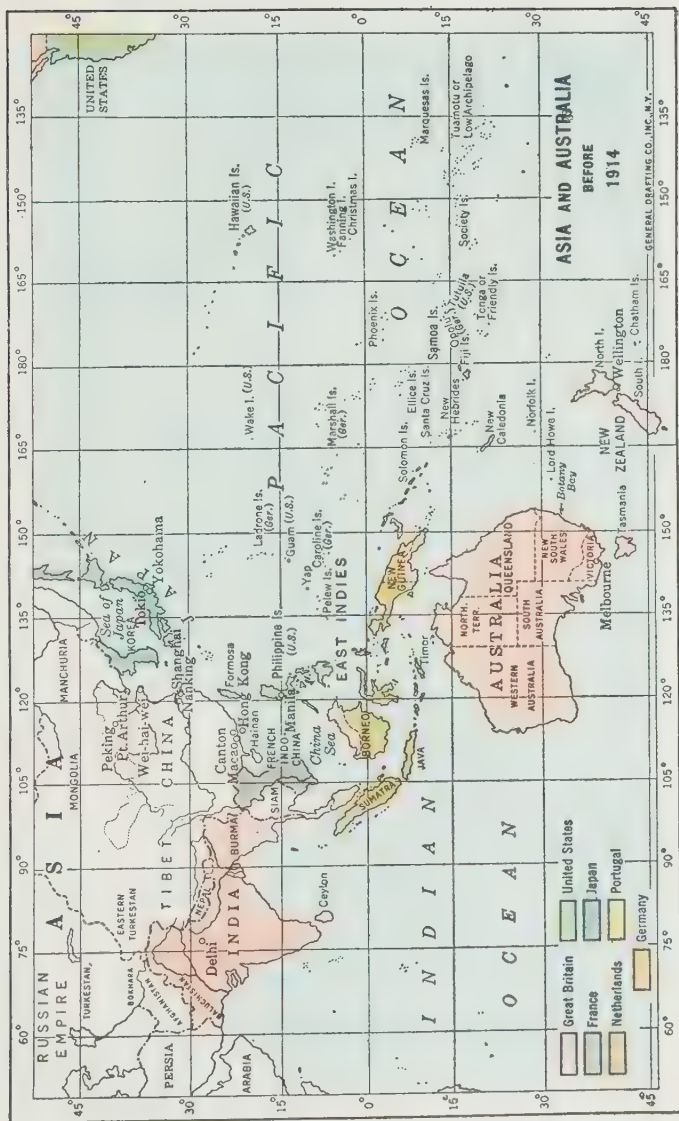
Russian Despotism. Discontent was rife during the next few years. The Tsar promised to give his people a constitutional government and a parliament. In the eight years pre-

vious to the World War he called three legislative assemblies (Dumas); but in every case he broke his promise and refused to relinquish any of his power. In 1914, on the verge of the great world conflict, Russia was still an eighteenth century autocracy. Its Duma had no power and the masses had no control over their government.

Oceanica. While nations were acquiring lands in Africa, India, and China they were also gaining possessions in Oceanica. In its broadest sense Oceanica includes all the islands of the Pacific. We have just discussed the Japanese archipelago and Formosa, while in previous chapters we told something of the East Indies and the Philippines. During this new era of expansion the Pacific islands assumed a greater importance for commercial nations. Besides their value in raw materials and in opportunities for marketing goods, they served as coaling stations, bases of supplies, and strategic points for war vessels. Merchant ships were also benefited by these inland settlements.

Australia. Australia, the vast island continent of the Pacific Ocean, lies 6,700 miles from San Francisco, and is nearly as large as the United States. In 1770 Captain James Cook landed in Botany Bay, raised the English flag, and claimed the island for England. For a long time Australia was used as a penal colony by the British government. Other people besides convicts began to settle in New South Wales, but colonization was slow. In 1840, about the time that Livingstone began his labors in Africa, Edward John Eyre (âr) started on his long journey of exploration through 1,200 miles of Australian wilderness and desert land. In 1851 gold was discovered and immigration was quickened. Settlements were made along the eastern and southern coast, which was exceedingly favorable for pasture land. Irrigation projects reclaimed much of the dry land, and Australia became one of the great agricultural regions of the world. It now exports large quantities of meat, wool, and wheat, as well as mineral products.

Australian Commonwealth, 1900. In 1900 the colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, West Australia, and the island of Tasmania were united into the Australian commonwealth. It was given a constitution





WELLINGTON HARBOR, NEW ZEALAND

Progress has made great strides in this far corner of the globe. Little over a hundred years old, Wellington is today one of the world's most important seaports.

which provided for a senate, a house of representatives, and a supreme court similar to the government of the United States. A governor-general represents the crown; but the prime minister, a representative of the people, is the chief executive.

Dominion of New Zealand, 1907. The Dutch sea captain, Tasman, was the first European to discover the islands which he named New Zealand. But Holland paid little attention to the discovery, and in 1839 the islands were annexed by Great Britain. Lying 1,300 miles southeast of Australia, the progress of the country under industrious English settlers was marked. In 1907 the islands were organized into a dominion, as Canada had been in 1867.

Samoa Islands. About 4,200 miles from San Francisco, in the southern Pacific, lies the tiny group of Samoa Islands. In 1878 the United States government, by a treaty with the natives, acquired the harbor of Apia (ä-pē'ä) on the island of Upolu (ōō'pō-lōō), to be used as a naval station. Germany, under the dictatorship of Bismarck, claimed the whole group. In 1886 the German consul at Apia raised the German flag over the town, and took possession of it in the name of his government. While the British consul waited for instructions from home the American consul immediately raised the American flag, claiming that Apia was a protectorate of the United States. American warships were quickly dispatched to Apia and the decks cleared for action. A terrific typhoon disabled the battle ships of both Germany and the United States, thus averting a serious conflict. The next month a conference was held at Berlin. The neutrality of the Samoa islands was guaranteed by Germany, and both England and our country were to share with the German Empire the protectorate over the native King.

Hawaiian Islands. In July, 1898, the United States government annexed the Hawaiian (hä-wī'yǎn) islands. These islands, lying in the mid-Pacific Ocean, had been settled by American missionaries, planters, and merchants. The Americans were given the rights of citizenship in Hawaii, and held many important posts in the Hawaiian government. In 1893 the ruling Queen was deposed for attempting to overthrow the constitution. A republic was established and an American

elected President. The new government applied to the United States for annexation, but President Cleveland refused and ordered the American flag lowered from the State building. In the next administration, however, Hawaii became a territory of the United States. In 1900 it was given a territorial government, with permission to send a delegate to Congress. Its representative is a member of the House of Representatives, with power to debate and to serve on committees, but not the right to vote.

Spanish-American War. The oppression of the Cubans by Spain, and the interference of the United States, led to the Spanish-American War. Spain was defeated in a short war, on land and sea. In December, 1898, at the Treaty of Paris, Spain withdrew from Cuba—which was later given its independence—and ceded Guam, Porto Rico, and the Philippine Islands to the United States. This war nearly led to a conflict with Germany. When the American admiral, George Dewey, attacked the Philippines the German navy was ready to interfere. The friendly attitude of Great Britain toward the Americans, and the fearless determination of Dewey, compelled the German admiral to change his mind.

The Panama Canal, 1904-1914. During the Spanish-American War the battleship *Oregon* was compelled to steam 14,000 miles, from our western coast around South America to Cuba. This proved to be a dangerous situation in time of war, as well as an expensive trip for merchant vessels in time of peace. When Theodore Roosevelt became President, he exerted the influence of his high office in the task of constructing a canal across the Isthmus of Panama. The acquisition of territorial rights for such a purpose involved us in trouble with Colombia. That government promised us permission to go through Panama, a province of Colombia, but later refused to keep that promise. To all appearances the Colombian senate was holding out for more money. Our government had agreed to pay \$10,000,000, with a yearly rental; but Colombia now demanded \$25,000,000. Shortly after this Panama revolted from Colombia (this was about the fiftieth time in the past fifty years), and the United States promptly recognized the independence of the revolutionists.



THE PANAMA CANAL

What Balboa and Champlain considered a possibility was finally realized in 1914, mainly through the efforts of President Roosevelt. Because the water in Gatun Lake is above sea level many huge locks are needed to lift the ships and lower them again. A steamer in one of the Gatun locks is shown above.

Rights Secured from Panama. In 1903 our government secured canal rights from the Republic of Panama, and the next year one of the most stupendous engineering and sanitary feats in all history was under way. In the summer of 1914 the canal was completed. After the World War, in President Harding's administration, the government paid Colombia \$25,000,000 for our part in the Panama affair. Whether Theodore Roosevelt, representing the United States, was justified in his actions can be better answered after reading in his autobiography the chapter on the Monroe Doctrine and the Panama Canal.

Clash of World Interests. This, in brief, is the story of expansion and conflict in Africa, in the Far East, and in Oceanica. German, English, French, Italian, Spanish, Dutch, Abyssinian, Turkish, and Egyptian interests clashed in the "dark continent." Chinese, Japanese, European, and American interests clashed in Asia. German, English, Spanish, and American possessions in Oceanica resulted in discords and

wars. In North America French and Americans were at odds, after our Civil War, because of the Mexican occupation by French troops under Napoleon III. In that instance we upheld the principles of the Monroe Doctrine by insisting on their withdrawal. In South America we defended that same doctrine when England refused to arbitrate the disputed boundary line between British Guiana and Venezuela. The United States insisted, in no mild way, that we had a right to interfere with the encroachments of Great Britain in South America. Fortunately, war was averted and the question submitted to arbitration. In North America Russian and English interests clashed, and in 1867 Russia sold us Alaska.

Having followed the history of the European countries in foreign lands, we must now turn to the affairs of those nations at home during this same period. There, too, they had conflicting interests, especially in the Balkan peninsula.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. What was the origin of Japanese immigration to the United States? What problem did it create? See Millis, *Japanese Problems in the United States*.
2. What problems does the United States face today in the government of the Philippines?
3. From what you know of China during the middle of the nineteenth century, give reasons why European and American people might have been justified in demanding extraterritorial rights. Would China have been justified in demanding those same rights in other countries? Is she justified in demanding now the withdrawal of those rights in her own country? Give reasons for your answers.
4. What part did the geographical situation, government, and social conditions play in the defeat of the Russians in the Russo-Japanese War?
5. Why was China not considered in the Treaty of Portsmouth? As regards China, was the moral law applied in that peace? Why?
6. How did the political tyranny in Russia affect Russian emigration to the United States?
7. Why was the settlement of Australia and New Zealand delayed until the latter part of the nineteenth century?
8. In what way has the Panama Canal benefited the world in general?

9. The European nations were nearly a thousand years passing from Feudalism to modern conditions. Why was it possible for Japan to accomplish the same thing within fifty years?
10. Do you consider the rapid advance of China an argument for imperialism? Explain.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. To understand the value of any or all of these foreign possessions, protectorates, and spheres of influence it is well to study and discuss their geography. A book well adapted for this purpose is Bowman's *The New World—Problems in Political Geography*—World Book Co.

II. Interesting and excellent accounts of all these countries can be found in Compton's *Pictured Encyclopedia*, the *World Book*, and the *Book of Knowledge*. In the first of these encyclopedias the fusion of history, government, economics, and geography is especially instructive and entertaining. Reports from the articles on China, India, Japan, Australia, New Zealand, Alaska, the Hawaiian Islands, Russia, and the Philippines will give the class much worthwhile information, and a better understanding of world problems today.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

ABBOTT	<i>Impressions of Theodore Roosevelt</i>	Doubleday
ROOSEVELT	<i>Autobiography</i>	Scribner

CHAPTER XXXVII

GATHERING OF THE WAR CLOUDS

Peace Sentiment Grows. The European partition of Africa and Asia led to many conflicts in those lands. More than once after 1870 the Great Powers of western Europe had been on the brink of war among themselves. National jealousies and distrust were created. Enormous sums were spent on armies and navies. Thoughtful people throughout the world began to talk and write about ways and means of lessening the possibilities of war. Several million workingmen, influenced by the teachings of Karl Marx, began to study the causes and results of wars—wars which they were called on to fight. Nations began to submit some of their disputed questions to arbitration.



THE PEACE PALACE AT THE HAGUE

After the International Peace Conference of 1899, a permanent court of justice known as The Hague Tribunal was established. A few years later Andrew Carnegie gave the money for the erection of the present palace, as the permanent home of the Tribunal and a meeting place for the peace conferences.

First Hague Conference, 1899. In 1898 the Tsar of Russia, Nicholas II, proposed that a great conference of nations be held at The Hague, the capital of Holland. The object of the Congress was to plan a way to maintain peace. When we stop to consider that the Tsar, with his treacherous advisers, was at that very time forcing Japan out of China and stealing the Chinese territory for himself, we question his sincerity. Regardless of that, however, representatives from twenty-six sovereign states met at The Hague in 1899. The conference established a permanent Court of Arbitration. The nations were willing to submit those differences which "involved neither honor nor vital interests." When the question of the limitation of armaments came up, Germany opposed the measure and it was dropped.

Second Hague Conference, 1907. In 1907 the second Hague Conference was held and forty-four sovereign states assembled. Rules of warfare were established. The use of

asphyxiating gases, the laying of mines, and the bombardment of hospitals and unfortified towns were forbidden. These rules became a part of international law, the enforcement of which depended upon the honor and good will of the nations involved. Again a reduction of armaments was proposed and again the plan was frustrated. Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany for the second time said "*Nein*" (no), and Austria backed the German decision.

Talk, international tribunals, and The Hague peace conferences could not allay the fear and suspicion that European powers had of each other. So they sought safety in increased armaments, larger armies and navies, and secret alliances.

Militarism. The humiliation of Prussia by Napoleon at the battle of Jena, 1806, caused the Prussian rulers to reorganize their army. Military service on the part of every able-bodied man was made compulsory. The army was increased from forty to sixty thousand men, and the Prussian youth was compelled to spend three years of active service in the army. After that he remained on the reserve list for two years, ready for instant duty. In 1862 Bismarck became the confidant and minister of William I. Defying the will of the people, Bismarck increased the term of military service and enlarged the army. Within six years the newly constructed military machine defeated first Denmark, then Austria, and finally France. The French were forced to pay a heavy indemnity and cede Alsace-Lorraine to the newly formed German Empire. The German policy of compulsory military training was soon adopted by all the European powers except England. Each nation, with good reason, was distrustful of the other. Each nation tried to outdo its neighbors in military strength. Scientists invented more deadly instruments of war, huge battle fleets were constructed, enormous supplies of ammunition were used for training purposes, and taxation for this new militarism soared higher and higher. In 1914 Russia was able to mobilize an army of six million men, Germany and France about four million each, and Austria-Hungary nearly three million. The English standing army was made up of volunteers and consisted at that time of some two hundred thousand men. Great Britain, however, depended upon its navy.

Navalism. England, separated from the Continent by the English Channel and dependent upon her foreign possessions for food supplies, pinned her faith in navalism. The British policy was to keep its navy as large as any two nations combined. In 1898 Germany began to plan a powerful fleet. The Kaiser boastfully demanded his "place in the sun." The German Empire, dominated by this autocrat, with his junker advisers, began to threaten not only England's naval supremacy, but the peace of the world. Great Britain became alarmed and increased her navy; the other Great Powers did likewise; and so the new navalism went hand in hand with the new militarism. Despite all competition, so strictly did England adhere to her naval program that in 1914 her navy was as large as those of any two nations combined.

Secret Diplomacy. The distrust of European nations for each other was shown not only in military and naval display, but also in the intrigues of secret diplomacy. France never forgave Germany for taking Alsace-Lorraine. The German rulers felt that the French would take revenge if they got the least opportunity. France felt that Germany was only waiting to repeat an aggressive war. The German leaders resented the influence of the Russians among the Slavic peoples of the Balkan peninsula. The control of that territory by Russia would frustrate the commercial plans of Germany. That nation desired access from the Balkans into Turkey in Asia Minor, and thence to the Persian Gulf. This would put her in touch with the trade of India and the Far East. This imperialistic German thrust threatened the trade of Great Britain, and therefore the peace of both nations. So the tangle grew, and the European diplomats in order to protect the interests of their own countries formed secret alliances with one another.

The Triple Alliance, 1882. In 1879 Germany and Austria-Hungary formed a secret alliance. They agreed to come to one another's aid if either country were attacked by Russia or by any power in league with Russia. In 1882 Bismarck induced Italy to join, and thus the Triple Alliance was formed. The Italians were willing to enter because France had just occupied Tunis, in northern Africa. Italy resented this, as she had planned to colonize that country herself.

Of course the common people knew nothing of this alliance. The diplomats of the other Great Powers were aware of its existence, but even they did not know its contents.

The Dual Alliance, 1892. Both France and Russia feared the attitude of this new German Emperor. They were suspicious of the Triple Alliance, which isolated them from the secret councils of those nations. In 1892, to protect their interests, France and Russia formed an alliance of their own. It was decided that Russia should help France in case Germany attacked France, and if Germany attacked Russia France was to aid the Russian armies. In this way the "Dual Alliance" was formed to offset the "Triple Alliance."



Courtesy of "Punch."

A CONTEMPORARY CARTOON

The Entente Cordiale.

France and England had been enemies for centuries, but the change of times had brought about a change of interests. In 1898 the two countries, as we have seen, were on the verge of war when France attempted to conquer the Egyptian Sudan in Africa. This affair was patched up, and in 1904 the two countries signed the secret agreement called by the French the *Entente Cordiale* (än-tänt' kôr-dyäl'). France agreed to the English control of Egypt, and England promised to allow France a free hand in Morocco.

The Anglo-Russian Agreement, 1907. For years the English and Russian interests had conflicted in Persia, both nations desiring the commercial advantages of that country. In 1907 it was agreed that Russia should mark out a sphere of influence in northern Persia and that England should control the commerce in the southeast. The two powers were not, however, the best of friends. The autocratic Tsar had

no love for English democracy. London was a haven for Russian refugees who had sought reforms in their own country.

The Triple Entente. France and Russia were bound together by the Dual Alliance, and both countries had established diplomatic relations with Great Britain. The events just described bound these three nations into the so-called "Triple Entente."

The Franco-Italian Alliance. During the same year (1902) that the Anglo-Japanese alliance was formed Italy made a secret treaty with France. She, too, agreed to allow France to conquer Morocco, and the French agreed to Italy's occupation of Tripoli; but Italy still remained a member of the Triple Alliance. One needs to remember these alliances in order to understand why the nations lined up as they did when the world-wide conflict of 1914 began.

Causes of the World War. The historian who approaches the causes of the great World War must tread with exceeding care. Just how far all the nations were to blame will never be known by the present generation. Locked in the national archives of Europe are many secret documents that would throw light upon the subject. As we look back over the political events of the nineteenth century it is hard to figure out just how the catastrophe could have been averted. Unscrupulous imperialistic methods, national rivalries, jealousies, fears, and hatreds, the increased cost of militarism and navalism, and secret diplomacy—those are the underlying reasons for the World War.

The Balkan Imbroglio. The Balkan Imbroglio (im-brōl'yo) is the name given to the complicated situation in that peninsula during the twentieth century. It became the center around which the European war clouds gathered. It led to the immediate occasion for the World War.

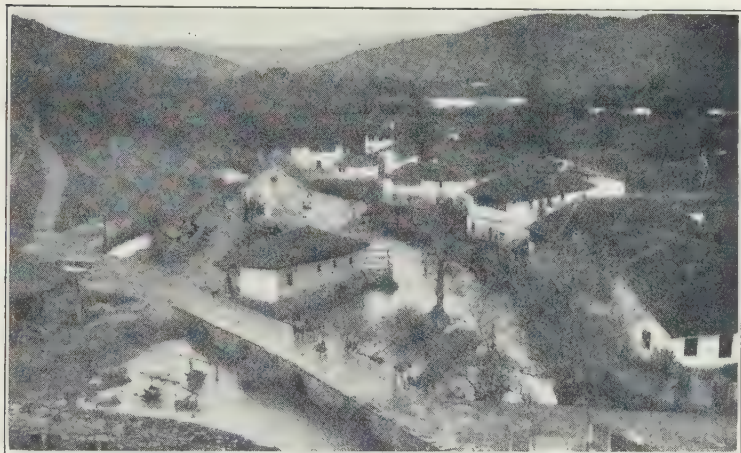
The Turkish Revolution of 1908. In July, 1908, there occurred a revolution in Turkey itself. The revolt was led by a group of dissatisfied political reformers known as the Young Turks. The organization was composed of men who had suffered persecution at the hands of the Sultan, Abdul Hamid II. They demanded a constitution and a parliament representative of the people. These things were immediately granted and there was great rejoicing among the Christian

and Mohammedan peoples in Asia Minor, Macedonia, Albania, and throughout the rest of the Balkans. Within the next year, however, the Young Turks became as despotic as those before them had been. They kept the government in the hands of Turks, and refused to share any of their power with the Christian subjects. They permitted the massacre of Christians, and endeavored to suppress all religious freedom. They inaugurated a policy of Turkification similar to the Tsar's Russification.

Results of Turkish Revolution. The Turkish government was weakened by these internal disturbances. Bulgaria took advantage of the situation and declared her complete independence of Turkey. The old Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria-Hungary, despite the Congress of Berlin, announced to European rulers his intention of annexing Bosnia and Herzegovina. The Slavic peoples in those two states objected. Serbia protested, for it was her great ambition to unite the people of Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Montenegro into one nation. The people in those places were of the same race and religion. They had the same customs and the same language. But the action of Austria shattered the dream of a Serbian empire. Cut off from the Adriatic Sea by the Austrian possessions of Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Serbs would always be dependent upon the good will of the surrounding countries to export or import goods. The action of Austria made Serbia a subservient power.

War Clouds Gathering. To offset Austria's annexations, which were contrary to the agreements made at the Congress of Berlin, Serbia called her Parliament. There was a note of war in the proceedings. The nations which had participated in the Congress of Berlin became alarmed. Germany backed Austria, and Italy appeared ready to do the same. The Triple Alliance had shown its hand. Russia had not gotten over the effects of her war with Japan and was unable to interfere. For the time being the Triple Entente and the Balkan states were forced to abide by the Austrian demands. The question was not settled—the war clouds were merely growing a little darker.

The Turko-Italian War of 1911. Italy, like Austria, took advantage of the revolution in Turkey to seize more territory.



A BULGARIAN VILLAGE

A typical Balkan mountain scene. Such a village in peace times gives little outward indication of the fierceness with which the inhabitants have warred upon their neighbors.

Claiming that her citizens were ill treated by the Turks in Tripoli, the Italian government declared war on the Young Turks in September, 1911. In a little over a year the Turko-Italian War was over, and Tripoli was ceded to Italy.

The First Balkan War, 1912. While Turkey was busily engaged in the war with Italy, Bulgaria, Serbia, and Greece united and declared war on the Turks. Their object was to free the people of Macedonia and Albania from Turkification, and at the same time gain more territory for themselves. On the same day that the Turko-Italian War ended, the first Balkan War began, 1912. The Balkan Allies were victorious on all sides. The Turks were forced to come to terms, and on May 30, 1913, the Treaty of London was signed. Turkey gave up Macedonia and the island of Crete to the victors.

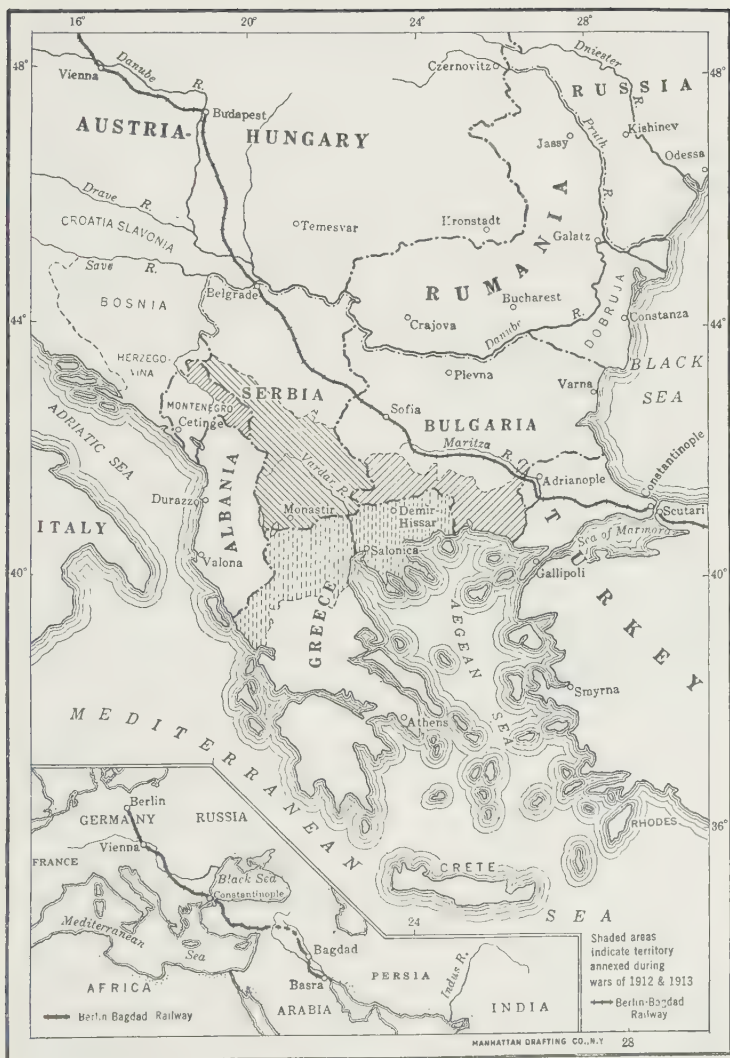
The Second Balkan War, 1913. Before the war began, Serbia, Bulgaria, and Greece had decided upon what territory they would annex if they were successful. Bulgaria was to receive a large part of Macedonia, while the sea coast along Albania was to go to Serbia. This would give the Serbs their

long desired outlet to the sea. But at this point Austria interfered and refused to allow Serbia to occupy any territory along the Adriatic. Some time later Albania was made an independent state.

Treaty of Bucharest. The action of Austria had spoiled the prearranged plans of the Balkan Allies concerning the division of territory. Those states began to quarrel about the spoils. This led to the second Balkan War, 1913. Bulgaria declared war on Serbia and Greece. Turkey and Rumania joined the conflict against the Bulgarians. Bulgaria was defeated in a short war, and the contending nations met at Bucharest (bōō'ka-rĕst'), Rumania, to prepare the peace terms. Serbia received a part of the Macedonian territory and was nearly doubled in size. Rumania, Greece, and Turkey received additional lands, while Bulgaria lost much that she might have retained had she not precipitated this war.

Situation in the Balkans, 1913-1914. The people of Serbia emerged from the Balkan Wars with added territory, but their hope of becoming a commercial power had been frustrated by Austria-Hungary. The Serbians now hated Austria as bitterly as they had Turkey. Austria at the same time was jealous of the growing power of Serbia. She feared that the Serbs would endeavor to unite the Austrian-Slavic peoples of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and the Slavs in Slavonia and Croatia. The European situation in 1913 was serious. After the Treaty of Bucharest Austria informed Italy that she intended taking action against Serbia. The Italian government replied that this would not be a defensive war on the part of Austria. That being the case she did not feel bound, according to the terms of the Triple Alliance, to side with Austria-Hungary.

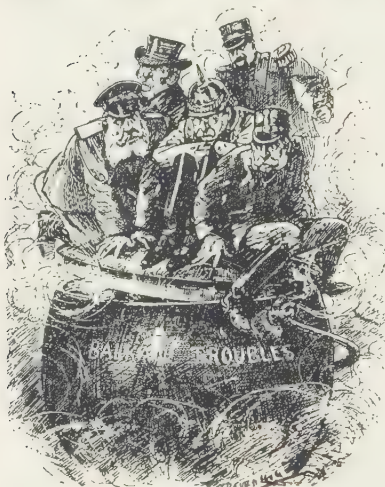
Military Preparation in 1913. The collapse of the old Turkish régime was a serious blow to the plans of Germany. She had received concessions from Turkey to construct a railroad from Berlin to Bagdad and the Persian Gulf. The proposed railway had to pass through Serbia, and therefore the expansion of Serbia and the hatred of that country for Austria, the ally of Germany, augured ill for the Kaiser's imperialistic designs. In 1913 the German Reichstag voted a billion marks for military purposes, and the army was enlarged. Railroad tracks were laid right up to the borders of



THE BALKANS

Showing the Berlin-Bagdad Railway and its proximity to India.

Belgium. Why? The Belgian government could only guess, and immediately introduced universal military training. France became alarmed; compulsory military training was increased from two years to three years. Marshal Joffre (zhô'fr), commander of the French armies, was ordered to Russia to help reorganize the Russian army. German military leaders went into Turkey for the same purpose. Austria made preparations for war, and England increased her navy.



Courtesy of "Punch"

THE BOILING POINT

the limit. The Austrian government had interfered with Serbian expansion, and had planned to invade Serbia in 1913. The European nations, following the action of the German junkers, were preparing for war. Twice within the past twenty-four months a crisis had been smoothed over: first when the Kaiser interfered in Morocco in 1912, and again when Austria planned an attack on Serbia in 1913.

Assassination of Archduke Francis Ferdinand. On June 28, 1914, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand (heir to the Austrian throne) and his wife were assassinated at Sarajevo (sà'râ-yâ-vô), the capital of Bosnia. The assassin was a Bosnian youth, a member of a secret society with headquar-

The Balkan Situation in 1914. In the meantime conditions in the Balkans were unsettled. Austria tried to Germanize her Slav territories. The Slavs resented the Austrian influence and were urged on by the Serbs. The political, social, and racial differences between Slav and Austrian created animosities and discords. Propaganda was used on all sides, plots and counterplots were formed, and ill will prevailed. Germany kept in touch with the Balkan situation and stood ready to back Austria to



SARAJEVO, CAPITAL OF BOSNIA

In this town, on June 28, 1914, the Archduke of Austria Francis Ferdinand and his wife were assassinated. From here the news was flashed which precipitated the World War.

ters in Serbia. More than ten years later Serbian officials and historians admitted that the chief of the Serbian Intelligence Department (spy system) planned the murder of the Archduke and supplied the assassin with bombs and revolvers. The minister of education admitted that he and other cabinet officers were aware of the plan.*

The Austrian Ultimatum, July 23, 1914. When news of the assassination was flashed throughout the world every European capital showed signs of intense nervousness. What would Austria do? What position would Russia, Germany, France, and England take? These were questions of great concern among the diplomats of Europe, who were familiar with the secret diplomacy and intrigues of the times. Austria-Hungary waited nearly a month, and then on July 23 the Austrian foreign minister dispatched an ultimatum to Serbia. It demanded, among other things: that the Serbian government should suppress all newspapers, magazines, and secret organizations which either published or manifested hatred and contempt of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy; that Serbia should eliminate all anti-Austrian books and teachers from her schools, and dismiss from her army and civil service all persons (to be named later by Austria) guilty of anti-Austrian propaganda; that Serbia should permit Austrian officials to aid her in carrying out those terms, and allow them to take part in the Serbian court trials. Austria-Hungary gave Serbia forty-eight hours to reply.

Austria Declares War, July 28, 1914. The Serbian government replied at 5:45 P. M. on July 25. It agreed to all the terms with the exception of the last, and this they offered to submit to The Hague Tribunal for arbitration. The Austrian minister left Belgrade, the capital of Serbia, claiming that the reply was unsatisfactory. The next day, July 26, Austria mobilized her armies and two days later declared war on Serbia.

Conciliation Fails. It seemed likely that Russia would come to the aid of the Serbs. If she did, according to the terms of the Dual Alliance, France was bound to aid Russia. Germany and Italy, as members of the Triple Alliance,

* See *Current History* for October and November, 1925. This whole matter is still in dispute.

would be drawn into the conflict as allies of Austria. Sir Edward Grey, the British Foreign Secretary, with members of the Triple Entente, had asked Austria to extend the time limit for Serbia's answer. Austria refused. He and his advisers then persuaded Serbia so to word its reply that Austria could not take offense. Serbia did this, but Austria declared war. Germany refused to send delegates to attend a London Conference to settle the Austro-Serbian difficulty, and upon further request refused to suggest any plan that would avert a conflict.

War Declared. As soon as Austria declared war on Serbia, Russia began to mobilize. Germany ordered her to demobilize. Russia did not answer. On August 1 Germany declared war on Russia, claiming that she did so in self-defense as the Russian armies were gathering on her borders. Germany then asked France what she intended to do. The French officials replied that she would do whatever her interests dictated. So on August 3 Germany declared war on France. Her troops had been on the march twenty-four hours before the declaration of war. The German military leaders had planned to crush France quickly and completely, and their first objective was Paris. They decided to pass through the neutral Kingdom of Belgium. On August 3 their armies were concentrating on the Belgian frontiers. An ultimatum was issued to Belgium demanding within twelve hours a permit to allow the German forces to march through Belgium into France.

Violation of Belgian Neutrality. In 1839 the European powers, including Prussia, had guaranteed the neutrality of Belgium; that is, it was not to be attacked by any foreign nation. If Belgium agreed to the German ultimatum her security was assured; if she refused she would be treated as an enemy. Belgium refused and appealed to England, one of the nations which had guaranteed her neutrality. On August 4 Germany invaded Belgium, and the little nation flew to arms.

England Enters the War, August 4. On August 2 England had secretly promised her ally, France, that if the German navy attacked the French coast, her fleet would be sent into action against Germany. Two days later Sir Edward

Grey sent an ultimatum to the German Empire demanding that the neutrality of Belgium be respected. Germany refused, and at eleven o'clock at night, August 4, England declared war on Germany. The German Chancellor, Von Bethman-Hollweg, said, "Just for a word—neutrality— . . . just for a scrap of paper, Great Britain waged war on a kindred nation, which desired nothing better than to be friends with her."

A World War. The war clouds had broken and within a week seven of the European Powers had been drawn into the conflict. Before the year ended, Turkey joined Germany and Austria-Hungary. Japan and Montenegro joined Serbia, Russia, France, Belgium, and England. Italy, despite her membership in the Triple Alliance, refused to join the Central Powers on the ground that they were not fighting a defensive war. In 1915 she joined the Allies. Before the war ended twenty-four countries were included among the Allied nations against the Central Powers, which, in turn, had been reënforced by Bulgaria. This has properly been called a World War. The people of Europe, Asia, Africa, and the islands of the sea had been drawn into it. The approximate cost was two hundred billions of dollars. More than sixty-four million men were mobilized by the warring nations. More than eight million were killed and more than twenty-one million wounded. This was the terrible toll of human life. One out of every three men mobilized was wounded; one out of every eight paid the supreme sacrifice. These are mere cold figures, but they help us to estimate the sadness and misery of a war-torn world. They are the figures which will affect mankind for years to come. Who and what was to blame? Will the world ever witness such a catastrophe again? Did those nine million men die in vain? The answer to these last two questions depends upon the real manhood and womanhood of the present generation. It must control the situation, and see to it that autocratic militarism shall never again raise its head.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Explain the difference between arbitration and conciliation. From instances in this chapter give an example of each.
2. Why was it necessary for England to put her faith in navalism?
3. Was the United States justified in holding aloof from the secret entangling alliances of European nations? Give reasons for your answer. How might we be drawn into the conflict despite our aloofness? Show by this reasoning that secret diplomacy is a menace to all nations.
4. Discuss three occasions when the United States upheld the Monroe Doctrine.
5. From the map show how and upon what nations Serbia would be dependent if she had no seaport. With a seaport how might she menace the prestige and commerce of Austria and Germany?
6. Do you think the Slavic peoples in Bosnia and Herzegovina were justified in resenting Austrian rule? Explain.
7. Why was Japan obligated to enter the war on the side of the Allies?

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Read in Hazen's *Modern Europe*: Chapter XXXIV, Russia Since the War with Japan; Chapter XXXV, The Balkan Wars of 1912 and 1913.

II. Report on the different Balkan States, showing how their geography, religion, race, and language have affected their history and the chief occupations and industries of those countries. See Compton's *Encyclopedia*, the *World Book*, or the *New International Encyclopedia*, under the headings of these nations.

III. The following reports from Plum and Benjamin's *Modern and Contemporary European History* should prove interesting: The Near Eastern Question; The Great Powers and the Near East; Central Europe and the Near East; The Young Turk Régime; The Balkan Wars.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

BISHOP	<i>Theodore Roosevelt and His Time</i>	Scribner
LAWRENCE	<i>Principles of International Law</i>	Heath

CHAPTER XXXVIII

THE WORLD WAR

The German Invasion of Belgium. The King of Belgium, Albert I, replied to the German ultimatum of August 2 that his government "would repel, with all the means in its power, every attack upon its rights." Immediately the German armies invaded his country and advanced toward the powerful Belgian fortress at Liége (lē-ězh'). As regiment after regiment passed through the invaded country, towns and cities were forced to pay heavy fines; homes were searched, looted, fired upon, and burned to the ground; thousands of civilians were taken prisoners, and thousands, rendered homeless, fled for safety. German patrols scoured the country and gathered up everything that would aid the Central Powers. Many of the industries, farms, and forests of Belgium were laid waste. The city of Louvain (lōō'văn'), with its famous university and library, was bombed and part of it lay in ruins.

The German Plan. The German High Command had planned to invade France from three directions. One army, as we have seen, was to pass through Belgium while the second advanced through the neutral state of Luxemburg to the south of Belgium. Meanwhile a third army was to march from Metz to Nancy. They hoped by this maneuver to defeat France thoroughly and quickly and then turn their attention to Russia, which country it was thought would be slow in mobilizing.

Capture of Liege and Namur. The French forces were hurriedly mobilized and ordered to those three points to check the invasion. Luxemburg offered no resistance to the Prussian advance, but the Belgians' defense of their neutrality delayed the German plans. The powerful fortress at Liége commanded the valley of the Meuse (mûz) River, the shortest route to Paris. This stronghold was considered impregnable by the Belgians, but under the terrific bombardment of the invaders' heavy artillery the walls of defense crumbled, and Liége was occupied by the enemy on August 7. To the south-

west of Liège lay another fortified city, Namur (ná'mür'). This, too, had to be taken before the German path to Paris was cleared. In the meantime England's "contemptible little army" (so called by the Kaiser) was being transported across the English Channel. The French were hurrying their forces northward to aid the Belgians. Before the onslaughts of the Germans at Namur the English, French, and Belgians were forced to give way and the city fell on August 22.

Antwerp Taken. The defenders retreated, and at Mons England's "old contemptibles" put up a stubborn resistance against overwhelming odds. But the combined armies of the Allies found themselves unable to hold the onrush of the gray-green hordes. They retreated southward day after day. All of Belgium was occupied by the Germans except a little territory southwest of Ostend. They captured Antwerp on October 10, and were in hopes of capturing the seaport at Calais, so as to use it as a base of attack on England. Before they could realize this, however, England's defense stiffened; and Calais, as well as the other Channel ports, was saved.

The Allies Retreat. But it was in those hot August days after the fall of Namur and the defeat at Mons that the Allied cause seemed darkest. Town after town in northern France fell into the hands of the invaders as the Allied armies retreated. The highways were lined with moving automobiles, bicycles, horses, and carts loaded with household goods and families of the fleeing refugees, hurrying to escape the ravages of the enemy. Weary and sorrowful pedestrians, carrying all their worldly possessions, trudged toward the south. Cavalry and artillery clattered and rumbled along the stone roads. French soldiers in their red trousers and blue coats hurried up and down the lines. (The regulation uniform of France became the more familiar horizon blue during the war.)

First Battle of the Marne, September 5-10. Still the German armies advanced, until on September 5 they had crossed the Marne River and were only twenty-five miles from Paris. The French government was moved to Bordeaux (bôr'dō'). Gloom pervaded the capital; all hope seemed lost. Then Marshal Joffre of the French army ordered his troops to stand and die, if need be, to the last man. While his armies had been retreating he was quickly organizing reën-



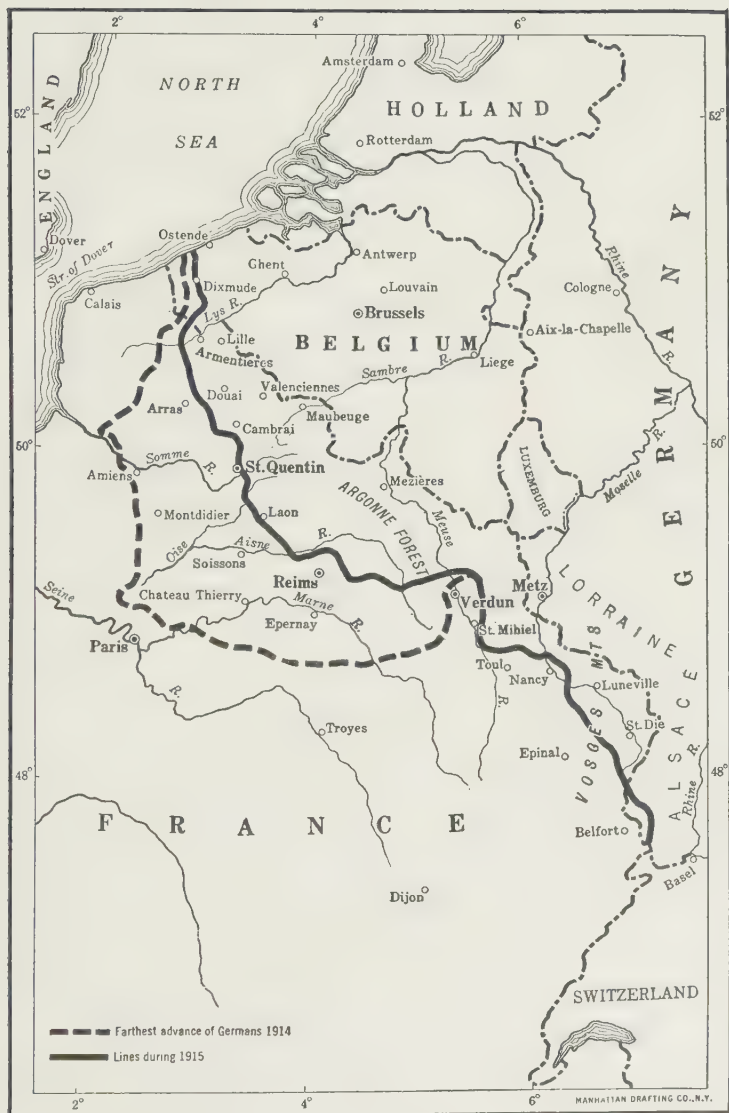
MARSHAL JOFFRE

Having started his army career in the Franco-Prussian War, Joffre gained fame as a strategist and military leader in the French colonies. At the head of the French armies in the World War, he had enemies in official circles, but the people adored him and gave him the affectionate title of "Papa Joffre."

forcements in the rear. These were now brought forward, and from the fifth to the tenth of September the battle of the Marne was waged. From a point north of Paris to the fortified city of Verdun, a distance of one hundred and fifty miles, the continuous battle line of the opposing forces swung back and forth. During the second day's fighting Marshal Joffre sent word to Gallieni (gá'lyā'nē'), the old military governor of Paris: "Every available man to the aid of General Manoury." Gallieni seized the taxicabs in the city, some five thousand in number. Aged veterans, gendarmes (policemen), boys, and men from the underworld were crowded into the taxis.

This taxicab army was hurried to the scene of action and aided the French and British in the defeat of the German commander, Von Kluck. With their backs to the wall the Allies fought stubbornly and furiously. On the tenth of September the German ranks all along the line gave way and were soon beating a hasty retreat across the Marne. They did not stop until they had crossed the Aisne (ân) River and scampered to safety in trenches already prepared for them. The first battle of the Marne was over; Europe had been saved from eighteenth century autoocracy.

First Battle of Ypres. It was during the next month that the Germans captured Antwerp and made their dash for the Channel ports. But in the latter attempt they were foiled. They were administered a stinging defeat by the British at



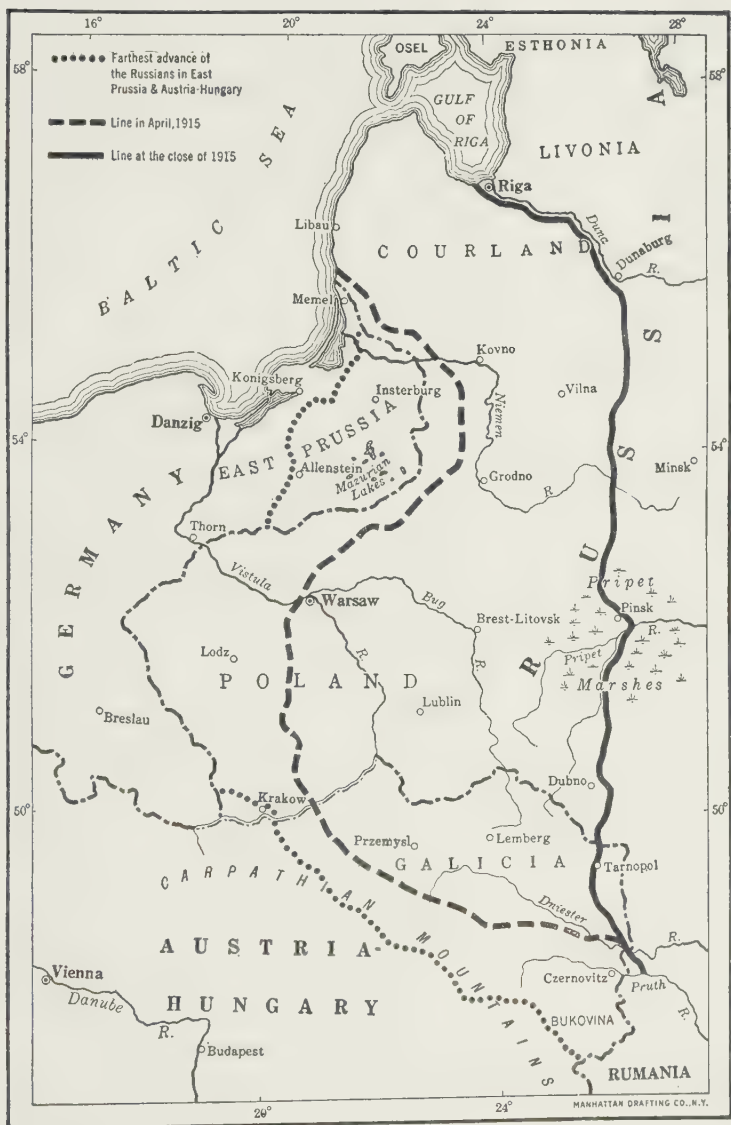
THE WORLD WAR
The Western Front, 1914-1915.

Ypres (ē'pr'). The capture of Ostend, however, gave the Germans control of the North Sea, and this they used as a submarine base during the war.

The Western Front. After these first great conflicts both sides "dug in" and trench warfare began. Winding in and out of towns and cities, across hills and plains, these zigzag trenches from five to forty feet deep extended on the western front from the North Sea to the Swiss border, a distance of six hundred miles. Despite the sacrifice of hundreds of thousands of human lives, this battle line did not change very much until March, 1918. The Germans controlled the North Sea in Belgium and the great coal and iron regions of northern France.

The Russian Armies. The Russian armies had mobilized more rapidly than Germany had expected. Under the command of Grand Duke Nicholas, uncle of the Czar, their armies invaded eastern Prussia about the middle of August. German regiments were withdrawn from the western front, where they were badly needed at the battle of the Marne. They reported to General Paul Von Hindenburg (hīn'dēn böörk), commander of the Kaiser's armies in Prussia. During the last week of August he succeeded in defeating the Russians at Tannenberg. The following week, due in part to the treachery of a Russian general, the Tsar's forces were defeated at Mazurian Lakes. In the south, however, against the Austrians and Hungarians, the Russians overran Galicia in the early part of September, 1914. The following year, 1915, the victorious Russian armies began to pour through the Carpathian Mountains into Hungary. The Poles, Bohemians (Czechs), and Slavs, those subject nationalities of Austria-Hungary, often refused to fight and thereby weakened the morale and strength of the Dual Monarchy's armies.

The Eastern Front. Satisfied that she could hold the trenches on the western front with fewer men during the stalemate of 1915, Germany resolved to concentrate her attack on the Russian menace in the east. In the spring of the year the German and Austrian troops defeated the Russians in Galicia and drove them many miles to the east. At the same time Hindenburg again defeated the Russians at Mazurian Lakes. The Muscovites were routed, 100,000 were taken prisoners,



THE WORLD WAR
The Eastern Front, 1914-1915.

and nearly 150,000 were killed or wounded. The Germans followed up their victory by driving the Russians out of East Prussia. They then occupied Poland and pushed on into Courland, Esthonia, and Livonia. No foreign invader now occupied one foot of German soil. Hindenburg became the idol of the people. Trench warfare became the order on the eastern front. The lines extended from the Gulf of Riga in the north to the frontiers of Rumania on the south, a distance of nine hundred miles.

Serbia. In August, 1914, the Austrian armies invaded Serbia and captured Belgrade, the capital. Montenegro had joined Serbia, and in December the Slavic allies, led by King Peter of Serbia, fought furiously and regained Belgrade. The Austrians were forced to retreat to their own soil and suffer the humiliation of Serbian troops occupying Austrian territory. The defeat of the Russians all along the eastern front in the summer of 1915 influenced Bulgaria to join the Central Powers. She had not forgotten the second Balkan War and longed for an opportunity to strike back at Serbia. So on October 4 she became an ally of Germany. A few weeks later the German and Austrian armies, fresh from their victories over Russia, invaded Serbia. For two months the small Serbian army held out against fearful odds. Finally, overwhelmed by superior numbers and attacked by Bulgaria on the east, the Serbian defense cracked. Surrounded and shut off from all assistance, only a remnant of the defenders, led by their aged King Peter, were able to escape. They made their way to the coast of Albania, where they were taken on board the Allied warships.

Turkey. Turkey had joined the Central Powers in November, 1914. The Sultan, with the sanction of the Kaiser, proclaimed a "holy war." That is, he called on all true Mohammedans to wage a war of extermination against the enemies of Islam. It was hoped that this would induce the Mohammedans in Egypt and India to rise against England. Great Britain replied by declaring Egypt independent of Turkey, placing a new Sultan on the throne, and establishing a protectorate over the country. The Mohammedan people in India remained loyal to Great Britain. But in Asia Minor the Turkish forces massacred a million Christian Armenians

and Syrians. The war thus spread to Mesopotamia, Arabia, and the Holy Land.

Italy. Italy remained neutral until May, 1915. She then joined the Allies, and made a secret treaty with them that after the war she should receive "Italia Irredenta." This, it will be recalled, included Trent and Trieste, Italian districts that were retained by Austria after the Italian unification of 1871 (Chapter XXXII). The treaty also provided that Italy should receive certain territories occupied by Germans and Slavs. This secret alliance was to cause trouble at the Versailles Peace Conference; but for the time being it established another front that Austria had to defend. The Central Powers were practically encircled.

Rumania. Rumania was promised a large part of Hungary, a portion which contained about three million Rumanians. This would help complete her national unity, so in August, 1916, she threw her forces on the side of the Allies. The Rumanians invaded Hungary, but in December they were defeated by German, Austrian, Bulgarian, and Turkish troops. Their capital, Bucharest, was captured and most of their territory, rich in wheat and oil, became a valuable asset to the Central Powers.

Greece and Portugal. King Constantine of Greece was a brother-in-law of the Kaiser, and strongly pro-German. The prime minister, Venizelos (vēn-c-zā'lōs), favored the Allies, as did most of the Greek people. On July 2, 1917, three months after the United States entered the conflict, the Greeks, under the leadership of Venizelos, declared war on Germany. In February, 1916, Portugal seized the German vessels in her ports as compensation for her losses resulting from that country's unrestricted submarine warfare. Germany immediately declared war on Portugal. What did one more country mean to the German junkers, who felt that their arms would surely triumph?

Four Years of Continuous War. The story of the World War can never be told with justice to all, either in one chapter or in one volume. It was the most stupendous military struggle ever waged. It was not the spectacular charge of generals with drawn swords, leading their men to an attack. It was not the charge of a single brigade with flying colors,

whose assault might mean the final victory or defeat of its country's cause. It was not the battle of warships meeting in the open on equal terms upon the high seas. It was a war of economic blockades, sinking submarines bent on ruthless destruction, hidden mines under the waters, and countless troop ships guarded by convoys hurrying from all parts of the globe to the scene of action. It was a war on, above, and under the ground—on, above, and under the water. The World War was a conflict which continued day and night, winter and summer, for more than four years, on a two-thousand-mile battle front.



A SMOKE SCREEN

From an official photograph.

Members of the 318th Regiment Infantry (American) advancing through a smoke screen. France, 1918.

Trench Warfare. Millions of men occupied the first line trenches. Always somewhere along those trenches sentries stood on fire steps, peering over the sandbagged tops at the barbed wire entanglements of "no man's land." They were ever on the alert for the expected enemy. Soldiers passed up and down the foul smelling trenches, splashing through sticky, slimy mud. Some carried iron pots and passed out

food and drink. Some were messengers; others were signalmen receiving or telephoning orders. Here were ammunition details; there were stretcher bearers. Observation, bombing, and battle planes buzzed and whirled overhead. A short distance in the rear, suspended high in the air and looking like huge sausages, were balloons, occupied by observers who noted the position and movements of the enemy.

Always somewhere along the fronts opposing artillery pounded away at the barbed wires, trenches, enemy batteries, and supply depots. Always at some places night patrols were crawling and wriggling their way across "no man's land," to cut or mend wires or to learn the strength of the enemy forces. Always at some point men were waiting for the "zero hour" to scale the ladders and charge "over the top" into "no man's land." With fixed bayonets and hand grenades these men, with their steel helmets and gas masks, followed in the wake of a terrific barrage or screen from their own artillery, and faced the deadly bombardment from the other side.

Behind the Lines. Always somewhere behind the lines weary men were passing in the night. Divisions groped their way along communication trenches to relieve the tired and nerve-strained defenders. Artillery trains drawn by stout horses clattered and rattled over the roads. Motor trucks filled with ammunition, food supplies, or soldiers made their way to and from the front. Ambulances hurried with their wounded and dying to first-aid stations. Silent sentinels guarded the crossroads and directed the traffic. Heavy artillery hidden along the roadsides flashed, barked, and thundered. Shells from the enemy guns swished and whistled through the air and took their toll of life or struck the ground and exploded, making great caverns in the earth and scattering dirt and shrapnel. The countrysides were dotted with little wooden crosses, silent tributes to those who had given their lives for their country.

Far back from the battlefields men, women, and children sadly toiled. They lived in constant fear of air raids. Night after night the rising screech of the siren warned them to seek shelter from the bombing planes.

Various Aspects of the War. The necessities of war demanded stern discipline, but in all armies there were petty



From an official photograph.

BEHIND THE LINES

A tank going forward to aid the advance of the American troops on the northern edge of the St. Mihiel salient. Refugees, who after four years have escaped the German yoke, crowd the public square in the background. Taken late in the afternoon of the first day of General Pershing's advance.

despots and injustices. This war, like all wars, witnessed pestilence, disease, immorality, and desertions among the fighting forces of every nation. Grafters and war profiteers in all countries sought first their own personal safety and then betrayed the men who were fighting and dying on the warring fronts. But as a whole, the story of the World War is one of unparalleled heroism and devotion on the part of men and women who served in the armies, in the hospitals, and in social welfare organizations. In the home lands young and old toiled and sacrificed in order to supply the men on the firing lines with comforts.

The above is only a general description, brief and incomplete, of this tremendous struggle. Hundreds of books have been written by men and women the world over who served

in different capacities during the war. They were eye witnesses of the events they describe. From them we have received vivid pictures of how they and their comrades lived, worked, and fought in those anxious days. While the war was one continuous battle, specific engagements are designated in history. These, as a rule, take their name from some river, forest, lake, or fortified town upon which a concentrated attack was made. Hundreds of thousands of men were mobilized at times along some portions of the front, and drives were made for certain objectives. In the parlance of the soldier, such drives were called "big pushes."



From an official photograph.

FIELD ARTILLERY READY TO FIRE

Poison gas necessitated the wearing of gas masks. The camouflage screen at the top of the picture is a wire netting filled with branches and leaves for protection from enemy aircraft.

English and French Drives. In March, 1915, the British made a drive along a four-mile front around the town of Neuve Chapelle. Despite the terrific artillery fire and the great numbers used in the infantry attack, but little ground was gained.

The casualties on both sides were heavy. To the south, about the same time, the French made a drive in the Champagne country near Reims (rēmz). They, too, lost heavily and made little progress.

Poison Gas. What slight gains had been made by the British and French were offset by the German counter attack in Ypres. As the men of the Allied armies waited for the assault, many of them began to foam at the mouth, fall over, take a few agonizing gasps, and die. The Germans had ignored a rule of international law; they had opened the attack with poison gas. The brunt of their assault fell on the Canadian troops. Those brave regiments from England's overseas Dominion held their ground and faced the Prussian gas, artillery, and machine guns. As long as men tell of the second Battle of Ypres (April 22-26, 1915) the heroism and sacrifice of those Canadian troops will live. Despite these tactics, Germany could not dislodge her foes.

Preparation of 1915. The Allies began to realize the seriousness of the War and the difficult years ahead if the Central Powers were to be defeated. England prepared for the task. David Lloyd George was appointed minister of munitions. He established munition factories throughout the country and speeded up the production of war materials. The army was increased to several million men. General French was replaced by Sir Douglas Haig as commander of the British forces in France. In 1916 universal compulsory military service was established. All able-bodied men between the ages of eighteen and fifty were subject to draft. For the rest of the year the British and French prepared for a big push on the western front during the following spring.

German Victories. It was while England and France were making these preparations that Germany took the opportunity to attack Russia and drive her armies out of Galicia and East Prussia. It was those achievements and the apparent success of Germany on the western front that induced Bulgaria to join hands with the Kaiser. The defeat of Serbia was a blow to the Allies. But before the year 1915 ended they witnessed another failure, the evacuation of Gallipoli (gäl-lē'pō-lē), a peninsula which controls the entrance to the Dardanelles.



THE GALLIPOLI CAMPAIGN

The Gallipoli Campaign, 1915. Before Turkey had entered the war she had violated the neutrality of the Black Sea by allowing German war vessels to pass into that neutral zone. If the Allies could clear the Dardanelles they would control the Black Sea and be able to ship munitions into Russia, which were badly needed by her hard pressed troops.

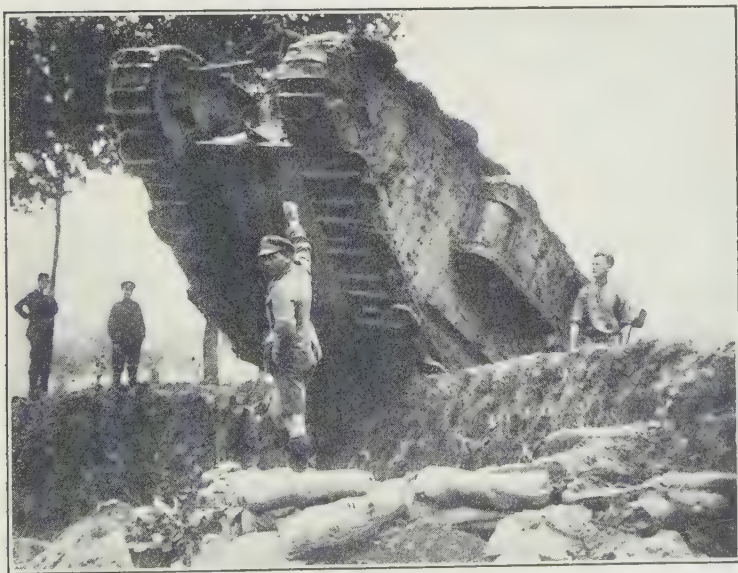
At the same time wheat from the Russian Ukraine could be secured to supply the shortage in the Allied countries. In the spring of 1915 an Anglo-French fleet endeavored to gain the Dardanelles. Because of the destructive fire from the shore batteries, in charge of German officers, the squadron was forced to withdraw. It was then decided to land troops at Gallipoli and have them fight their way overland and capture Constantinople. Regiments from England, France, Australia, and New Zealand fought bravely and stubbornly. But in a few months they had lost nearly 100,000 men, killed or wounded. At Gallipoli the Anzaes (name given to the Australian and New Zealand troops) proved their loyalty to Great Britain and their superb quality as fighters. The occupation of Gallipoli was a serious mistake, and in December the Allies withdrew.

The Salonica Front. Anglo-French troops had landed in northwestern Greece during October, 1915. It had been their purpose to aid Serbia, but after King Peter's armies were crushed the Allies fell back and maintained their lines around Salonica (sä'lô-nē'kă). This position was to be of great importance later on. It was from this front that Bulgaria was to be attacked, defeated, and forced to sign an armistice in 1918. On land the year 1915 had proved favorable for the Central Powers.

Verdun, February-July, 1916. Encouraged, the Germans in February, 1916, attacked the great fortress of Verdun (vē'r'dŭn') in northwestern France. Verdun extended far in toward the enemy lines, and was partially surrounded by the German troops. It was the key to the French defense. If it fell the entire French line was liable to give way. Early in the morning of February 21 the German batteries around Verdun opened fire. Tons and tons of high explosives and gas shells were poured into the French lines. Trenches, dug-outs, and buildings were demolished. The large shells tore holes in the ground fifteen feet deep and thirty feet wide. The roar and thunder of the artillery was deafening. For months the Germans had been preparing for this attack. They expected Verdun to fall within a few days, and then they would march triumphantly into Paris. The Kaiser's eldest son, the Crown Prince, was in command. His was to be the

honor and glory of leading the victorious army into the French capital. The bombardment was followed by a mass attack of 400,000 picked troops. They made their way past the front line trenches, but were met by the rapid fire of the famous French 75's (guns 75 millimeters in diameter).

"They Shall Not Pass." In the meantime the French were hurrying reënforcements to the scene. Thousands of motor trucks with dust-covered men made their way into Verdun despite the withering fire. General Henri Pétain (pā-tăn') was placed in command, and under his inspiring leadership the battle cry of the French poilu became " *Ils ne passeront pas!*" (They shall not pass!) For more than four months—February to July—the Crown Prince pounded away at Verdun and sacrificed a half million men. But thanks to the heroic French defense the Germans did not pass. Paris was saved.



From an official photograph.

TANK WARFARE

One of the British tanks awaits the order to advance. Meanwhile some of the crew come out for a breath of fresh air.

"Tanks." The pressure on Verdun had been relieved by an Anglo-French drive along the Somme (sôm) River, which lasted from July until November. The Allies lost 300,000 men and gained but very little territory. It was during this Somme offensive that the British introduced those armored motor trucks called "tanks." These were able to make their way in and out of trenches and to batter down barbed wire entanglements. Tanks were used in great numbers as the War wore on.

Russian and Italian Victories in 1916. While the attack on Verdun and the battle of the Somme were raging, the Russians again invaded Galicia, routed the Austrian army, and captured 500,000 prisoners. The Muscovites were unable to follow up their victory because of mismanagement by government officials and the lack of supplies. In August the Italians crossed the Isonzo River, captured Gorizia (gôr-êds'ê-a), and threatened the Austrian seaport of Trieste.

The "Hindenburg Line." In 1916 Ferdinand Foch was made commander of the French armies and Von Hindenburg, the hero of Mazurian Lakes, was placed in command of the German armies on the western front. The continual nibbling of the Allies, from the North Sea to Switzerland, during 1916 was a source of annoyance to the Central Powers. In the spring of 1917 Von Hindenburg retreated on a wide front so as to shorten the German lines. The evacuated territory was laid waste and buildings were destroyed. The new German position, with its strong entrenchments, was known as the Hindenburg Line and was considered impregnable.

The German Colonies Lost. The German colonies throughout the world were seized by the Allies during the first two years of the War. In China, Japan conquered and occupied the Shantung peninsula and the port of Kiaochow; Australia and New Zealand captured the German islands in the Pacific; while French, British, and South African troops took possession of Germany's territories in Africa. The Hohenzollern lands in the Antarctic were seized by Great Britain.

Battle of Jutland, May 31, 1916. The superiority of the British navy soon cleared the seas of German war vessels and merchant ships. The German fleet sought safety in the

waters of the Baltic and the Kiel Canal. On May 31, 1916, the fleet slipped out from the harbor of Kiel. It was sighted by a part of the British fleet under Admiral Beatty. A running fight ensued off the coast of Jutland. Both sides lost heavily, but at nightfall the German vessels steamed into their harbor and did not make another appearance during the war.

Submarine Warfare. So thoroughly did Great Britain maintain her naval blockade that Germany found it more difficult as time went on to secure food and munitions from neutral countries. As long as England remained mistress of the seas the Germans could never transport an army and invade the British Isles. As long as the fleets of the Central Powers remained bottled up the Allies could receive supplies from the outside world and troops from their overseas possessions. In order to offset this disadvantage Germany resorted to submarine warfare, pinned her faith in "U-boats," and laid mines around the Allied harbors. The Kaiser's naval commander was Admiral Von Tirpitz.

Germany Again Violates International Law. The shipyards of Germany began to turn out submarines as quickly as possible. These boats would slink away from their base, and without warning sink war vessels, merchant ships, and passenger liners. It mattered little to the crews of Von Tirpitz whether their victims belonged to enemy or neutral ships. According to international law the crew and passengers of sinking vessels should be removed and their lives safeguarded by the victors. But the German "U-boats" disregarded this and left their victims to the mercy of the waves.

Great Britain Interferes with Our Trade. Early in the War England discovered that food supplies and ammunition were being shipped into Germany by way of Norway, Sweden, and Holland—neutral countries. The German control of the Baltic and its Dutch frontier made this possible. The British now demanded that all neutrals limit their shipments to such goods only as were absolutely needed in those countries. They justified this act because of the unfairness of Germany's submarine policy. But the neutral countries, especially the United States, objected to this. Nevertheless, England seized and confiscated our cargoes. The state department sent sev-

eral sharp warnings to Great Britain, but the English maintained their stand. Just how far this controversy might have gone no one knows. American sympathies, on the whole, were with the Allies. But about this time our attention was drawn to more serious interferences by Germany.

German War Zone. On February 4, 1915, the German government announced that the waters surrounding Great Britain and Ireland were to be designated as a war zone. They also stated that any ships belonging to the Allies or neutral countries were in danger of being sunk without warning, with all their passengers and crews. President Wilson immediately notified the German government that this was a violation of American rights on the high seas, and that he would hold them strictly accountable for the loss of American lives. He later said that the ships and cargoes confiscated by England could be paid for after the war, but that Germany could never pay for the wanton destruction of human life.

Sinking of the *Lusitania*, May 7, 1915. Would Germany heed President Wilson's warning? Many people in the United States believed so. On May 7, 1915, the news was flashed across the Atlantic that the British Cunard liner *Lusitania* (lū-sī-tā'nī-à) had been sunk off the Irish coast by a German submarine. Nearly twelve hundred men, women, and children were drowned, without warning, and one hundred and twenty-five of them were Americans. Indignation in America ran high. Men like Theodore Roosevelt and General Leonard Wood did all in their power to awaken the people to the need of preparation. The German government excused the act on the ground that the *Lusitania* carried munitions of war, and that the Americans had no business on the vessel since they had been warned in the New York papers concerning the pending fate of the vessel. An American board of inquiry reported in its findings that the *Lusitania* was not armed and that it did not carry war supplies.

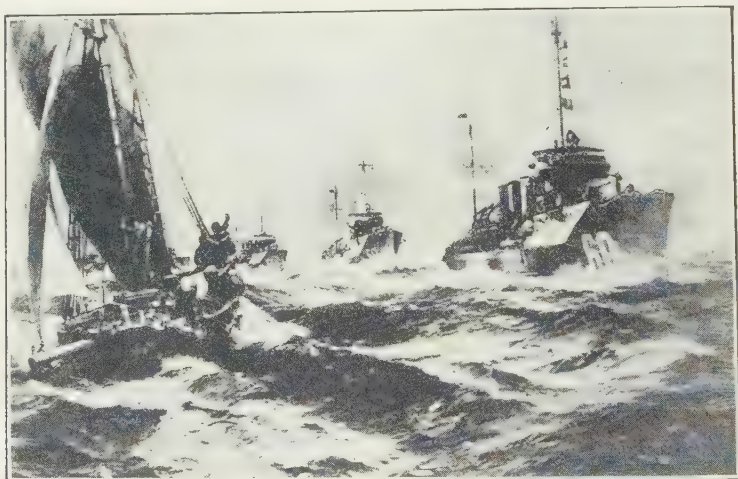
German Plots in America. Again President Wilson warned Germany and again that country sent an evasive reply. The sinkings went on and American lives continued to be lost. German spies in America began to circulate propaganda, encourage strikes in our munition factories, place bombs on American ships carrying munitions of war, and plot

against the safety of the United States. In Germany the Kaiser approached our Ambassador, Mr. James Gerard, and said: "America had better look out after this war. I shall stand no nonsense from America." But the German Emperor had underestimated the prowess of the United States. Before the War ended the German armies were fleeing before the onslaught of Yankee regiments, and American "nonsense" was driving William Hohenzollern into exile.

The Zimmermann Message. On February 24, 1917, Mr. Walter Hines Page, the American Ambassador to England, sent a letter to our Secretary of State. The British had intercepted a code message from the German Secretary of Foreign Affairs in Berlin to the German minister in Mexico. It read: "We intend to begin, on the first of February, unrestricted submarine warfare. We shall endeavor in spite of this to keep the United States of America neutral. In the event of this not succeeding, we make Mexico a proposal of alliance on the following basis: make war together, make peace together, generous financial support, and an understanding on our part that Mexico is to reconquer the lost territory in Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona. The settlement in detail is left to you. You will inform the President [President Carranza of Mexico] of the above most secretly as soon as the outbreak of the war with the United States of America is certain, and add the suggestion that he should on his own initiative invite Japan to immediate adherence and at the same time mediate between Japan and ourselves. Please call the President's attention to the fact that the ruthless employment of our submarines now offers the prospect of compelling England in a few months to make peace."

The United States Enters the War, April 6, 1917. The Congress of the United States was assembled in special session, and on Good Friday, April 6, 1917, it declared war on Germany. Late in 1914 Mr. Page had written President Wilson stating that the World War was a "world changing clash of systems." Woodrow Wilson interpreted this statement when he appeared before Congress on that momentous April day. He said that the irresponsible German government had "cast aside all considerations of humanity and was running amuck among the nations. We have no quarrel with

the German people, but only with the military despotism of Germany." "The world must be made safe for democracy." The United States had been goaded into war. It entered without secret alliances, selfish purposes, or desire for annexation of territories. On December 7 war was declared on Austria-Hungary.



From an official photograph.

AMERICAN DESTROYERS IN EUROPEAN WATERS

First contingent arriving at Queenstown, Ireland, May, 1917.

America Prepares. Thousands of men volunteered for service in the army and navy. In May, however, Congress passed the Selective Service Act, which made all men between the ages of 21 and 30, inclusive, subject to draft. This was later made between 18 and 45, thereby making twenty-three million men liable for service. Thirty large cantonments were speedily erected for the accommodation and training of an American army. Shipyards doubled their forces and worked day and night to prepare a large fleet. Huge sums of money were loaned to the Allies by our government. Our people subscribed to "liberty loans" until it hurt. They toiled and sacrificed and observed meatless, wheatless, heatless, and gasless days. Children bought war savings stamps and worked

gardens. A mighty nation had been roused and was preparing. The American navy was ready when we declared war. In May a squadron of destroyers and submarine chasers under Admiral Sims joined the British fleet in English waters. General John J. Pershing was appointed commander of the American Expeditionary Forces in France. The war-wearied Allies took heart and waited impatiently for the arrival of our troops.

Russia at the Beginning of the War. But while America feverishly prepared, Germany was encouraged by the defeat and collapse of the Russian armies on the long eastern front. When the war broke out Russia was still suffering from the tyranny of an autocratic government. The revolution of 1905 and succeeding revolts had accomplished little in democratizing the country. Dumas were established, but they exercised no power. Tsar Nicholas II and his advisers had broken faith with his subjects. In 1914 the Russian people were poor, unhappy, and oppressed; and illiterate because of that oppression. They were ready to break the bonds of tyranny, as all people worthy of freedom had done before. They were ready to lay down their lives for the better things in life and rid their country of tyrants. But Nicholas II and many of the Russian nobility were unfamiliar with the records of history and did not know how to read the signs of the times.

The Russian Revolution, March 15, 1917. For two and a half years the Russian troops had fought against heavy odds. They were poorly fed and supplied. At critical times they had been betrayed by their own generals and members of the Tsar's court. In 1916 rumors spread that the pro-German officials at the court, the Tsar's German wife, and the Tsar himself were negotiating for a separate peace with the Central Powers. The liberals in the Duma demanded a responsible government and were supported by the army and the people. In December the Tsar dismissed the liberals and replaced them with unpopular and tyrannical officials. During the early weeks of February 100,000 men went on strike in Petrograd (St. Petersburg). The strikes spread throughout the country. Food riots occurred, and the soldiers refused to fire on the populace. On March 11 the Tsar dissolved the Duma, but the Duma refused to adjourn. Four

days later a provisional government was established composed of Liberals, Constitutional Democrats, and Socialists. The Tsar, on his way back from the front, was notified of the change and forced to sign his own and his son's abdication. All of the Romanoffs renounced their rights, and many of the Tsar's officials were thrown into prison. The political prisoners at home and in far-away Siberia were liberated.

Alexander Kerensky. The leading spirit in the new provisional government was Alexander Kerensky (kě'r'en-sky'), who was appointed minister of justice. He was a Socialist and represented the Workingmen's and Soldiers' Council. He favored, as did the rest of the cabinet, such reforms as freedom of speech and of the press, the abolition of the old police system, labor reforms, and universal suffrage. He wished to continue the war, but without annexations or indemnities. He was in thorough sympathy with the act that returned to the people of Finland their constitution, and that which promised the Poles self-government. But Kerensky was a disappointment to the more radical Socialists. They desired an immediate peace, with the right of all people to decide their own national status (self-determination). So when Kerensky endeavored to continue the war with new vigor, he met with strong opposition. Groups of soldiers and workingmen organized councils (soviets) and condemned the war as the work of imperialists and capitalists. Dissatisfaction spread among the armies and thousands of soldiers deserted the eastern front.

Lenin and Trotsky. Kerensky denounced these actions, but on November 7 he and the provisional ministry were overthrown. One of the contributing factors in Kerensky's downfall was the refusal of the Allies to agree to his program of "no annexations and no indemnities." The radical Socialists, known as the Bolsheviks (bōl'she-vē'ki) (majority party), gained control of the government. The leaders of the new régime had been supported by soldier, labor, and peasant soviets. The prime minister was Vladimir Ulinov, a Russian noble who in early life had become a Socialist. Under the Tsar he had been exiled to Switzerland, where he had written under the pen name of Nicholas Lenin. Leo Trotsky, a middle class Jew, was appointed the "People's Commissioner for

Military Affairs." He had been a political prisoner in Siberia, but had escaped and sought refuge in Vienna and Paris. At the outbreak of the revolution he was living in New York City. The destiny of Russia for the next seven years lay in the hands of these two men.

Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, March 3, 1918. The Bolsheviks immediately introduced a system of communism, abolished private property in land and capital, and placed all factories and other agencies of production under public ownership. They sought an immediate world-wide peace. Unsuccessful in this, and their armies routed, they were compelled to sign a separate and humiliating treaty with Germany at Brest-Litovsk in Poland, on March 3, 1918. The Russians agreed to recognize the independence of Finland and the Ukraine, under the protection of Germany. They were forced to evacuate Poland, Lithuania, Courland, Esthonia, Latvia, and other territory, and to pay a heavy indemnity. One-third of the Russian industries, three-fourths of her coal and iron mines, and her great wheat belt were now thrown open to the Central Powers.

The War in 1917. During 1917, however, the Allied nations kept pounding away on the western front. From July to November the British made continual drives in Flanders and to the south around Cambria. Farther south the French gained ground along the Aisne (ân) River, but were unable to break the Hindenburg Line. Contingents of American engineers and ambulance drivers attached to the British and French armies took part in these drives. And somewhere in France American "doughboys" were completing their training behind the lines. In October a German-Austrian drive was launched against the Italians. The Italian armies were routed and 200,000 men and 2,000 cannon were captured. Their retreat was halted along the Piave (pyä'vā) River, where their hard pressed troops entrenched. In Asia Minor the Allies were more successful. Early in the year the British General Maude captured the city of Bagdad. In December General Allenby, at the head of British and Arab troops, captured the city of Jerusalem and freed it from Moslem rule.

The Situation in 1918. When the year 1918 dawned, the situation looked dismal for the hard pressed Allies. The Rus-

sian front had collapsed, the Italians had been routed, and the Anglo-French troops were unable to advance to any great extent. The German submarines were taking heavy toll of Allied shipping, while vast resources had been opened up to the Central Powers. In August, 1917, Pope Benedict XV called upon the warring nations to cease fighting, and outlined several proposals for peace. But President Wilson, replying for the Allied nations, said that no enduring peace could be made with the autocratic and irresponsible German government. On January 8, 1918, the American President addressed Congress and laid down fourteen points upon which a lasting peace might be secured. (See questions.) But while President Wilson was stating his Fourteen Points the Kaiser was preparing for a mighty drive, which he thought would end the War and insure a Teutonic victory. The defeat of the Russian armies enabled him to transfer nearly a million veteran troops from the eastern to the western front. The hope of the Allies was turned toward America. Could that country transport its several million fighting men across 3,000 miles of submarine infested seas in time? British and American transports, convoyed by the American navy, took up the challenge and the race between Germany and the United States for the western front began.

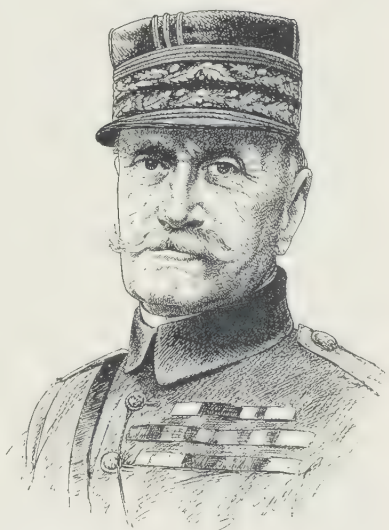
The Great German Offensive. On March 21, 1918, the great German offensive prepared by Generals Hindenburg and Ludendorff began. It opened against the British along the Somme and was preceded by a terrible five-hour bombardment. Wave after wave of German infantry poured across a fifty-mile front. Under the incessant fire of thousands of German cannon the British front lines gave way, then the second lines retreated, and on and on pressed the German massed infantry. The Allies retreated for nearly thirty miles before they were able to check the assault. The city of Amiens was within firing distance of the German cannon. The roads once more were filled with thousands of French refugees. The people of Paris were seeking shelter in the subways, for they were being bombarded by a long range gun situated sixty miles away. For hours they remained underground thinking that it was a daylight air raid. "The prize of victory must not and will not fail us. No soft peace

but one corresponding to Germany's interests," were boastful remarks of the Kaiser at this time.

Unity of Command in the Allied Armies. The Allied world read the bulletins and communiqués with breathless suspense. On March 28 General Pershing communicated with Ferdinand Foch (fôsh), the French commander, and said: "I have come to say to you that the American people would hold it a great honor for our troops were they engaged in the present battle. I ask it of you in my name and in that of the American people. There is at this moment no other question than that of fighting. Infantry, artillery, aviation, all that we have are yours to dispose of as you will."

And on that day all of the Allied armies—British, Italian, French, and American—were placed under the single command of that great strategist, Marshal Foch. At last there was among the Allies a unity of command which had long been needed.

Would America Come Too Late? Toward the end of May the forces of the Crown Prince had again reached the Marne. The people in Paris had been alarmed for days. They had followed the enemy advance on their maps, and many prepared to leave the city. Thousands of Americans were in France. They had been busy constructing bases of supplies and railroads. They had been fighting in small units all along the front. This the French knew. But on the even-



MARSHAL FOCH

A distinguished artillery officer, Foch became famous through his published lectures on strategy which were widely read throughout Europe and quoted as authoritative. When the War broke out he was the general in command at Nancy. Later recognized as the greatest general of the War, he was made commander-in-chief of the Allied armies.

ing of the last day of May they could look in the distance and see the fire from the French cannon, hear the distant rumble of guns, and feel the earth tremble. The Germans were only forty miles from Paris. To the Parisians and the world in general it looked as though America were too late.

Chateau-Thierry. But in the night, when Allied spirits were lowest, English lorries, French camions, and American motor trucks were rushing to the front. The next day the world heard the glad tidings that the American second division, composed of doughboys and marines, had stopped the German advance at Chateau-Thierry (shâ-tô' tyâr-rê). The victory drive of the Germans had ended. America had been in time. A wave of enthusiasm and hope spread through the Allied ranks. Pershing's long, hard days of preparation were over. His two million men were in France and were ready.



GENERAL PERSHING

Pershing's career began at seventeen as a school teacher. When he had saved enough money he entered the normal school at Kirksville, Mo. While there he saw a notice of a competitive examination for West Point, which he took and won. This began the military career of the future commander of the American Expeditionary Forces. In 1917 he was made a general, the fourth American to be thus honored.

The Allied Counter Attacks. Marshal Foch had been gradually gathering his reserves. The Germans had given their all in these last offensives. Their losses, as well as those of the Allies, were enormous. But Germany had no fresh reserves. On July 18 Foch started a series of rapid counter attacks. He struck at first one place and then another along the western front, until the German commanders became bewildered. Within four months the Central Powers were in full retreat. The men of the Allied armies, representing every race and almost every creed, won immortal names for them-

selves in this advance. On September 12 and 13 American troops blotted out the St. Mihiel salient south of Verdun, taking over 16,000 prisoners and 443 cannon. On September 26 an all-American drive began in the Argonne (ar-gôn') Forest. The Central Powers defended this line with their picked troops. The French declared the forest impregnable, and no Allied army had attempted to penetrate it. But twenty-one American divisions, numbering 1,200,000 men, made their way over hills, ravines, and underbrush. Through the fall rains and in the face of artillery and machine-gun nests they made their way and captured more than 26,000 prisoners. As the Americans pushed toward Sedan the Allied armies all along the front were making victorious advances.

Surrender of Bulgaria, September 29, 1918. Hard pressed on the western front Germany could not support her allies on the other fronts, and one after the other they were forced to surrender. British, French, Italian, and Serbian troops made a drive on Bulgaria from Salonica. Bulgaria capitulated and signed an armistice on September 29.

Turkey Surrenders, October 31, 1918. The collapse of Bulgaria shut Turkey off from all communication with Germany and Austria-Hungary. Syria was captured by the Franco-English troops, and the old city of Damascus was occupied by the conquerors. The Syrians, after centuries of Turkish tyranny, rejoiced because of their deliverance. The Turkish armies in Mesopotamia were captured, and on October 31 Turkey laid down its arms and surrendered.

Armistice with Austria-Hungary, November 3, 1918. The Slavic peoples in Austria-Hungary revolted. The northern Slavs joined the newly formed republic of Czechoslovakia (chĕk-ō-slo-vāk'ī-a), and the southern or Yugoslavs renounced their allegiance to Austria. The Hungarians also revolted against the Hapsburgs. Because of these conditions, the Italians were able to force the Austrians out of northern Italy and their troops occupied Trent and the seaport of Trieste. On November 3 the Austrians signed an armistice which amounted to a complete surrender.

Germany Surrenders. By this time the Belgians had entered Flanders; the British had broken the Hindenburg Line; the French were liberating one town after another in

northern France; and the Americans had reached Sedan, where they had cut the railroad communications. A month before this the German High Command, realizing their ultimate and complete defeat, had sued for a peace based on President Wilson's Fourteen Points. The people, too, realized the hopelessness of the situation and the treachery of their autocratic leaders. On November 7 German sailors in Kiel Harbor mutinied, seized several warships, and raised the red flag. At the same time the people in cities, towns, and states revolted and overthrew their governments. On the ninth of November the Kaiser abdicated and fled to Holland. The Crown Prince renounced all rights to the throne, and a provisional government was set up. The new régime was to be based upon the will of the majority, expressed by universal suffrage.

Terms of the Armistice. The day before the Kaiser's abdication Marshal Foch gave to a German delegation the terms upon which the Allies would agree to an armistice. These terms were nothing more nor less than a complete surrender. Germany was to evacuate all invaded countries, as well as the territories of her former allies, within fourteen days. She was to return immediately all hostages and prisoners of war. She was to surrender many of her war vessels, all of her submarines and torpedo boats, a specific number of locomotives, motor trucks, and aeroplanes, and vast supplies of war materials. She was to withdraw to the left bank of the Rhine and permit the Allied armies to occupy the Rhineland, together with the Rhine bridges on the right bank (bridgeheads) at Mainz (mīnts), Coblenz, and Cologne (kô-lôn'). These and many other conditions to be settled at the Peace Conference were demanded, and Germany was given seventy-two hours to accept or reject them. The German delegates received these peace terms at Rethondes, in the Compiègne district of France. Fighting in that region had ceased during the conference, and if Germany accepted the Allied proposals fighting all along the fronts was to cease six hours afterwards.

Armistice Day, November 11, 1918. At eleven A. M. on November 11, 1918, the sirens began to shriek in Paris, whistles blew, and bells rang. The streets were thronged with

parading, laughing, shouting, weeping people. The same thing was taking place in thousands of cities, towns, and villages in every part of the globe. The struggle was over, the war-sick millions were rejoicing. The greatest crime and carnage in history had ended. Political intrigue, chicanery, and treachery of false leaders past and present had caused this untold sorrow. Would the peace bring a new era of world-wide understanding, a clearer conception of the brotherhood of man, and a new internationalism? It would if the masses saw to it that politicians kept faith with those eight million dead.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Below are President Wilson's "Fourteen Points." Explain what he meant and to what he referred in history. Justify his demands from your knowledge of the past. Make a brief summary of the Fourteen Points.

1. Open covenants of peace, openly arrived at, after which there shall be no private international understandings of any kind, but diplomacy shall proceed always frankly and in the public view.

2. Absolute freedom of navigation upon the seas, outside territorial waters, alike in peace and in war, except as the seas may be closed in whole or in part by international action for the enforcement of international covenants.

3. The removal so far as possible of all economic barriers, and the establishment of an equality of trade conditions among all nations consenting to the peace and associating themselves for its maintenance.

4. Adequate guarantees given and taken that national armaments will be reduced to the lowest points consistent with domestic safety.

5. Free, open-minded, and absolutely impartial adjustment of all colonial claims, based upon a strict observance of the principle that in determining all such questions of sovereignty the interests of the population concerned must have equal weight with the equitable claims of the Government whose title is to be determined.

6. The evacuation of all Russian territory, and such a settlement of all questions affecting Russia as will secure the best and freest cooperation of the other nations of the world in obtaining for her an unhampered and unembarrassed oppor-

tunity for the independent determination of her own political development and national policy, and insure her of a sincere welcome in the society of free nations, under institutions of her own choosing; and more than a welcome, assistance also of every kind that she may need and may herself desire. The treatment accorded Russia by her sister nations in the months to come will be the acid test of their good will, and of their comprehension of her needs as distinguished from their own interests, and their intelligent and unselfish sympathy.

7. Belgium, the whole world will agree, must be evacuated and restored, without any attempt to limit the sovereignty which she enjoys in common with all other free nations. No other single act will serve as this will serve to restore confidence among the nations, in the laws which they have themselves set and determined for the government of their relations with one another. Without this healing act the whole structure and validity of international law is forever impaired.

8. All French territory should be freed and the invaded portions restored, and the wrong done to France by Prussia in 1871 in the matter of Alsace-Lorraine, which has unsettled the peace of the world for nearly fifty years, should be righted in order that peace may once more be made secure in the interest of all.

9. A readjustment of the frontiers of Italy should be effected along clearly recognizable lines of nationality.

10. The people of Austria-Hungary, whose place among the nations we wish to see safeguarded and assured, should be accorded the freest opportunity of autonomous development.

11. Rumania, Serbia, and Montenegro should be evacuated; occupied territories restored; Serbia accorded free and secure access to the sea; and the relation of the several Balkan States to one another determined by friendly counsel along historically established lines of allegiance and nationality; and international guarantees of the political and economic independence and territorial integrity of the several Balkan States should be entered into.

12. The Turkish portions of the present Ottoman Empire should be assured a secure sovereignty, but the other nationalities which are now under Turkish rule should be assured an undoubted security of life and an absolutely unmolested opportunity of autonomous development, and the Dardanelles should be permanently opened as a free passage to the ships and commerce of all nations under international guarantees.

13. An independent Polish state should be erected which

should include the territories inhabited by indisputably Polish populations, which should be assured free and secure access to the sea and whose political and economic independence should be guaranteed by international covenant.

14. A general association of nations must be formed under specific covenants for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

Following is a list of books written by men and women who served in nearly every branch of the service. Reports from these vitally interesting volumes will afford a better understanding of the World War and the events which followed.

1. GIBBONS	<i>And they Thought We Wouldn't Fight</i>	Doran
2. EMPEY	<i>Over the Top</i>	Putnam
3. LAUDER	<i>A Minstrel in France</i>	Hearst International
4. CASSELS	<i>The Black Watch</i>	Doubleday
5. DAVIS	<i>With the French</i>	Scribner
6. BADEN-POWELL	<i>My Adventures as a Spy</i>	Lippincott
7. GILBERT	<i>The Romance of the Last Crusade</i>	Appleton
8. THOMAS	<i>With Laurence in Arabia</i>	Century
9. KNYRETT	<i>"Over There"</i>	Scribner
	<i>With the Australians</i>	Scribner
10. UPLADY	<i>The Cross at the Front</i>	Revell
11. GERARD	<i>My Four Years in Germany</i> (Chapters 3, 4, 5, 6, 19)	Doran
12. VON DER GOLTZ	<i>My Adventures as a German Secret Agent</i>	McBride
13. ROOSEVELT	<i>War in the Garden of Eden</i>	Scribner
14. HALL	<i>In the Air</i>	New Library
15. HAIGH	<i>Life in a Tank</i>	Houghton
16. GAINS	<i>Helping France</i>	Dutton

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

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The New Page Letters		World's Work, October, 1925
ZIMMERMAN	<i>Note to Mexico</i>	World's Work, November, 1925

EPOCH TEN

THE NEW INTERNATIONALISM

In Epoch Nine we witnessed the partition of Africa and Oceanica, and the rise of China and Japan as world powers. We saw the terrible price mankind was forced to pay in the World War because of the political intrigues, chicanery, greed, and treachery of false leaders past and present. The World War marked the end of an Epoch.

Will the new Epoch be a period of better international understanding? Will it be free from secret alliances that hold the lives of the masses as pawns for politicians and militarists? The oncoming generations must answer these vital questions. How they were answered by the peace commissions in the treaties that closed the War, and how we are meeting the issues now, will be discussed in this final Epoch—upon which we have only just entered—that of The New Internationalism.

CHAPTER XXXIX

THE PEACE TREATIES

The Old Internationalism. Webster's *New International Dictionary* tells us that "The international life of a people manifests itself in three different ways: in hostile relations (war); in pacific neutral relations (commerce); or in sympathetic relations (exchange of ideas, feelings, feasts, Congresses, etc.)." These three manifestations of international life have prevailed since the days when authentic history began along the banks of the Nile. The mechanical inventions which produced the industrial revolution intensified all of these things. The improved methods of transportation and communication brought the peoples of the world closer together. One great invention followed another and all mankind was affected. More and more, nations became dependent upon one another for food, clothing, pleasure, and the necessary comforts of home life. During the nineteenth and early twentieth century nationalism was stressed in all countries. National rivalries led to national hatreds, distrust, secret alliances, and wars. Those characteristics were expressed in that unscrupulous imperialism of the last Epoch. Nations scrambled and fought for foreign markets and territories, so as to secure for themselves economic independence. But complete independence in all things could only be obtained through world domination by some one Power, and that was impossible.

The New Internationalism. Long before the World War, however, a few people began to see that the great industrial, commercial, and colonial changes demanded a world responsibility based upon intelligent and friendly cooperation. International organizations—political, economic, scientific, and social—were formed. But it was not until the assassination of an archduke at Sarajevo, which precipitated a world-wide conflict, that mankind began to realize the complicated conditions of modern civilization. People began to advocate open

and honest diplomacy, the rights of smaller nations, and means for lessening or abolishing the possibilities of war. They began to study life and conditions in all nations, in order the better to understand their fellow men. They were eager to abolish the evils which prevailed in the old internationalism. They hoped to create a feeling of responsibility and brotherhood in international relationships.

The Outstanding Problem of Today. This new internationalism has become the great outstanding problem of the nations today. It had to be faced by the Allied governments at the Peace Conference. How they faced that problem, and how the world is now facing it, forms the story of this last Epoch. The New Internationalism will not be realized, if realized at all, in a decade or in a generation. But if the onward march of progress is to continue, later generations will have to solve this problem.

The "Watch on the Rhine." It was decided that the Peace Conference should be held at Paris. While the delegates were arriving, the Allied armies (known as the Armies of Occupation) marched into Germany to keep "the watch on the Rhine." The British patrolled the bridgehead at Cologne, the French at Mainz, and the American sentinels stood guard at Coblenz.

Opening Session of the Peace Conference. The opening session of the Congress of Paris met on January 18, 1919, in the French foreign office, known as the Quai d'Orsay. Seventy



GEORGES CLEMENCEAU

Clemenceau early won the name of "The Tiger" for his vigorous and even fierce propaganda for French nationalism. His influence as a Senator was so great that he was made Premier of France. During the War he visited the poilus in the front line trenches, cheering and encouraging the soldiers, who nicknamed him "*Père Victoire*."

delegates, representing the Allied nations throughout the world, sat in this notable assembly. The Central Powers were not allowed to participate in the conference. But the newly formed states of Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Hedjaz (hěj-äz') sent delegates. Representatives from neutral nations and nations in process of formation were given a voice in any sessions that pertained to their particular interests. Thirty-two governments were represented,* and each delegation brought with it a group of experts on history, geography, economics, military affairs, law, and other related subjects. The task which awaited the Peace Conference was a stupendous one. Its personnel was too large to deal with all the questions brought before it effectively and quickly. So in order to facilitate matters the work was divided among various commissions. There was a commission appointed to formulate a plan for a League of Nations; one to fix the responsibility of the War; a third to determine the reparation for damages; a fourth on international labor legislation; a fifth on international control over ports, waterways, and railroads. There were other commissions on boundaries, on economic co-operation among the Allies, etc.

The Supreme Council. The reports of these various commissions were to be submitted to a committee of fifteen, composed of two delegates each from the United States, Great Britain, France, Italy, and Japan, with five additional members to represent all the other countries. But the real power and final decisions of the Peace Conference rested with the Supreme Council. At first this consisted of President Wilson and his Secretary of State, Mr. Lansing, with the four Premiers and foreign secretaries of England, France, Italy, and Japan. These men were known as the "Big Ten," but since each pair was dominated by one man, the Supreme Council was later dubbed the "Big Five." It dwindled to a "Big Four," and finally all decisions rested with President Wilson,

* Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, British Empire (including Australia, Canada, India, New Zealand and South Africa), China, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Ecuador, France, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Hedjaz, Honduras, Italy, Japan, Jugoslavia, Liberia, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Rumania, Siam, the United States, and Uruguay.

Lloyd George, and Clemenceau, premier of France—the so-called “Big Three.”

Claims of Italy and Japan. Premier Orlando of Italy was primarily interested in the restoration of “Italia Irredenta” and the acquisition of the Adriatic seaport of Fiume (fyōō’mā). Baron Makino of Japan sought the former German territories in China for his own country. The insistence of these last two premiers in claiming what they considered just, under the old rules of diplomacy, was to cause several ruptures in the Supreme Council.

Program of the Conference. Impressive ceremonies marked the opening of the Peace Conference on January 18. Presi-

dent Poincaré delivered an address of welcome, after which Mr. Wilson nominated Clemenceau for president of the conference. The French premier was duly elected and in a brief speech outlined the work which was to be taken up by the delegates. The various commissions were appointed according to prearranged plans. President Wilson was placed at the head of the League of Nations Commission. This commission, with those on the Responsibility of the War, Reparation for Damages, International Labor Legislation, etc., were to report their findings to the Supreme Council. The latter reserved the power to render the final decision in all matters.

Criticisms of the Conference Proceedings. From the very beginning there was much criticism and dissatisfaction concerning the arrangements and methods of the Conference.



WOODROW WILSON

From the time of America's entrance into the War, Wilson was the spokesman for the Allied Powers. He cherished a plan for a League of Nations and attended the Peace Conference in person to fight for the famous “Fourteen Points.”



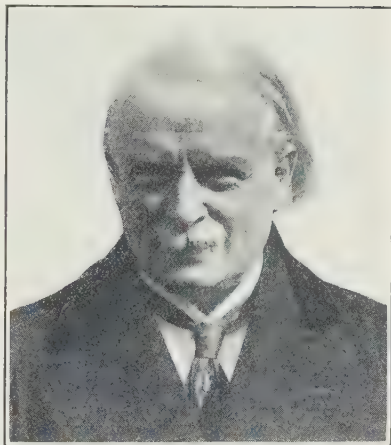
THE WORLD'S PROBLEM

A heated discussion arose over the question of allowing newspaper reporters to attend the meeting. The press and the public were of the opinion that the world should be informed of the proceedings. They had had enough of secret diplomacy. The Congress decided that reporters would be permitted to sit in the plenary sessions, with the proviso that all of their articles were to be censored before being reported. As there were but

six sessions where all the delegates assembled, and since only the final decisions of the secret meetings were delivered on these occasions, the public knew little of what was taking place behind closed doors. The smaller nations resented the power usurped by the Big Five. The tactics of the larger nations, they claimed, were not in accord with Mr. Wilson's "open covenants" outlined in his Fourteen Points. But the Big Five argued that there were so many problems, and so many people interested only in their own particular concerns, that it would be impossible to do efficient work in a large assembly.

The Mandatory System. In the closed meetings of the five Powers there was a great deal of dissension and bitter controversy. When it came to the question of disposing of the German colonies, Mr. Wilson found that his colleagues had planned to annex them outright. To this he objected and insisted upon a system of mandates. Under this plan each of the colonies of the Central Powers was to be intrusted by the League of Nations to some member of that League. Those mandates were to be governed as the League directed, and the mandatory or guardian nations were to make a yearly report to the League. When the people in the Mandates became capable of governing themselves they were to be permitted to vote on whether or not they wanted to be independ-

ent. The old world diplomats objected strenuously to this. But it was the rivalry for colonial possessions and the mistreatment of subject peoples that in large part had brought on the War, and Mr. Wilson stood firm. Through the influence of Lloyd George the mandatory system was adopted.



DAVID LLOYD GEORGE

Son of a poor Welsh schoolmaster, Lloyd George's spectacular career culminated in his election as prime minister of England. He supervised Britain's part in the War and during the Peace negotiations was a dominant figure in the Supreme Council.

The Saar Valley. Another critical situation arose when France demanded the Saar (zär) Valley, located in western Germany. That region has abundant coal fields, and the French felt that they should be compensated for the wanton destruction of their own coal mines at Lens by the German armies. The people of the Saar Valley are German, and Wilson now advocated what he had maintained in his Fourteen Points—that "in determining all questions of sovereignty the interests of the population concerned must have equal weight with the equitable claims of the government whose title is to be determined." The question was finally compromised, and according to the peace treaty France was allowed to work the Saar coal fields for fifteen years. During that period the government of the people was to be administered by the League of Nations. At the end of that time a plebiscite should be taken, so that the people might decide whether they desired to remain under the control of the League, to unite with France, or to unite with Germany.

Fiume. In 1918, when Italy entered the war, the Allies in the secret Pact of London promised her "Italia Irredenta." But at the Conference Italy claimed Fiume, a seaport along the Adriatic, and in 1919 a part of the newly formed Kingdom

of Yugoslavia. There were more Italians in Fiume than any other nationality. For that reason there was a great deal of sentiment in Italy for its annexation. Wilson would not agree to Orlando's request, and was backed in a half-hearted manner by Lloyd George and Clemenceau. Still Orlando insisted, and then Mr. Wilson gave the facts of the case to the press. The outside world was in sympathy with Wilson's stand, but the Italian people were filled with resentment. In the hope that he might thus break up the Conference Premier Orlando left for Rome, where he was acclaimed by the Italian populace. When it was seen that the peace treaty with Germany would be signed without them, the Italian delegation returned to Paris. A few years later Fiume did become a part of Italy, and Yugoslavia received the nearby port of Baros.

Shantung. While the Fiume controversy was at its height the Japanese delegates demanded the former German rights to Kiaochow and the Shantung peninsula. Great Britain and France had promised these to Japan. Wilson objected. China objected, the world objected to this highhanded affair at a time when people were looking for justice to all. But Clemenceau and Lloyd George in this case backed Japan, and finally Wilson gave in. The action of the American President was a disappointment to many of his followers. He hoped, however, that justice would come later through action of the League of Nations. He believed that his dream of a world covenant could never be realized if the Conference broke up. The Italians had already left, and all the powers of the Supreme Council were against him on the Shantung question. Two years later, at the Washington Disarmament Conference called by President Harding, Japan did the honorable thing and returned the peninsula to China.

Treaty of Versailles. After nearly four months of strenuous labor the different commissions reported, and the final text of the Treaty was prepared. The document consists of fifteen parts, which include a League of Nations; boundaries; penalties; reparations; and military, naval, financial, economic, and labor clauses. The full text contains 80,000 words and is written in English and French on opposite pages. On May 7 it was presented to a German delegation, who were instructed to make all communications with regard to its terms



ASIA, 1926

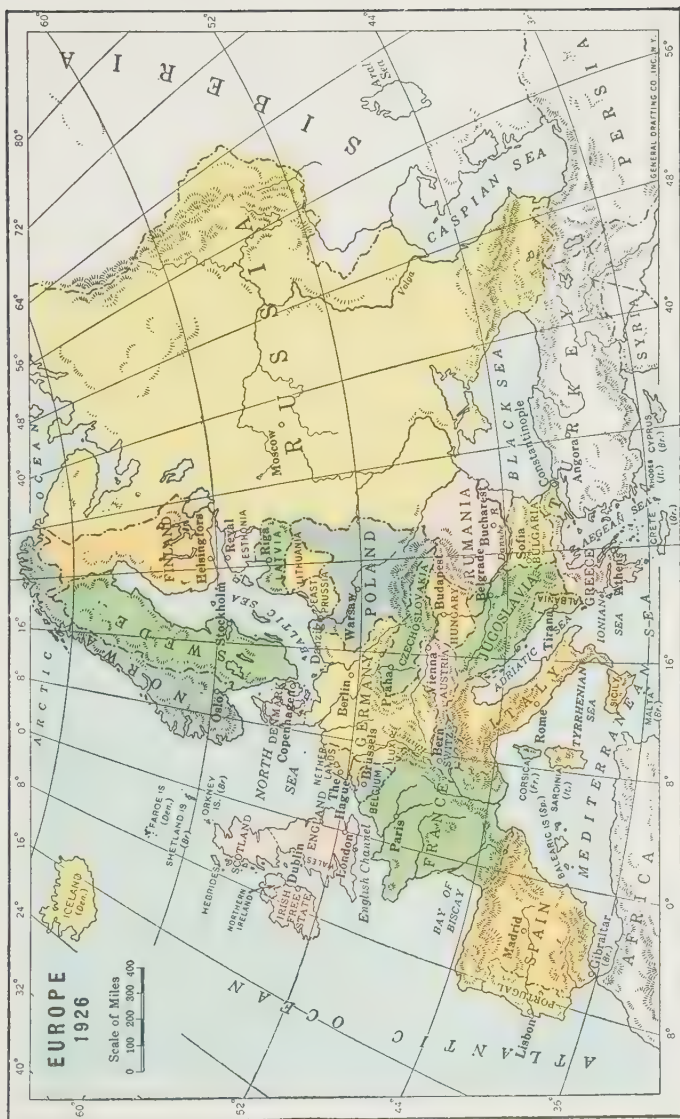
in writing. The Germans complained of its revengeful and harsh character. After much opposition and delay a few changes were made. On June 28 the German delegates signed the treaty in the Hall of Mirrors in the Palace of Versailles, where, forty-eight years before, the German Empire had been proclaimed by Bismarck.

The League of Nations Assembly. Part I of the Versailles Treaty contains the rules and plans for setting up the machinery for a League of Nations. The first session of the League was held in November, 1920, at Geneva, Switzerland. It consists of an Assembly, a Council, and a Secretariat. The Assembly is composed of not more than three delegates from each member state, including the British possessions of Australia, New Zealand, Canada, India, and South Africa. It meets each year, on the first Monday in September. It outlines the work of the League and controls financial matters. Each state is allowed one vote.

The Council. In the Council, in 1927, Great Britain, France, Italy, Japan, and Germany were allowed one representative each. In addition there were nine nonpermanent members chosen from the remaining member states. The Council meets whenever occasion demands, and its members decide the course to be taken in all important matters.

The Secretariat. The Secretariat is always in session. Its duty is to file treaties and documents, collect information, and arrange for the meetings of the different organizations of the League, including the International Labor Organization. At its head is a Secretary General, appointed by the Council and approved by the Assembly. It has about 400 assistants.

The Court of International Justice, 1922. The Council and the Assembly also appoint members to a Court of International Justice. This consists of eleven prominent international jurists, appointed from the different countries, and a number of deputy judges from the remaining nations. The duty of this court is to settle disputes arising among nations, so as to avoid armed conflicts. The first meeting of the Court of International Justice was held in February, 1922, at The Hague. The United States was represented in this court, though not a member of it.



Article X. Article X of the Covenant of the League of Nations provides: "The members of the League undertake to respect and preserve as against external aggression the territorial integrity and existing political independence of all members of the League. In case of any such aggression, or in case of any threat or danger of such aggression, the council shall advise upon the means by which this obligation shall be fulfilled."

Article XVI. Article XVI, in part, reads: "Should any member of the League resort to war in disregard of its covenants under Articles 12, 13, 14, 15, it shall ipso facto be deemed to have committed an act of war against all other members of the League, which hereby undertake immediately to subject it to the severance of all trade or financial relations, the prohibition of all intercourse between their nationals and the nationals of the covenant-breaking State, and the prevention of all financial, commercial, or personal intercourse between the nationals of the covenant-breaking State and the nationals of any other State whether a member of the League or not.

"It shall be the duty of the Council in such case to recommend to the several Governments concerned what effective military, naval or air force the members of the League shall severally contribute to the armed forces to be used to protect the covenants of the League."

Refusal of the United States to Ratify the Treaty. The Republican Senate in the United States, led by Henry Cabot Lodge, objected to these two articles. They argued that the acceptance of those terms would embroil us in the wars of Europe, and deprive our government of much of its sovereignty; and that the articles were contrary to the advice of Washington, who warned us not to enter into any "foreign entangling alliances." They objected also to the system of mandates, and to the fact that Great Britain with its dominions would have six votes in the Assembly to our one. The Republican majority wished to make certain reservations, but the Democrats, upon advice from Wilson, would not agree to any alterations of the original covenant. After a bitter fight, the Senate refused to ratify the Covenant or the remaining parts of the Treaty. For this reason the United States has

remained outside the League of Nations. In August, 1921, our government signed a separate treaty with Germany.

Loss of German Territory. Among other things in the fourteen remaining parts of the Treaty, Germany was compelled to give to France Alsace-Lorraine and the Saar coal mines mentioned above. She was to cede three towns to Belgium, though one (Malmedy) was permitted to hold a plebiscite later. Northern Schleswig, taken from Denmark in 1864, was returned upon the vote of its inhabitants. The province of Posen, a great part of West Prussia, and a portion of Upper Silesia were returned to Poland. In order to insure a seaport for Poland, Danzig was made a Free State under the jurisdiction of the League; and a strip of German territory leading to Danzig, known as the Polish Corridor, was handed over to the resurrected nation. Memel, a former German port, was in 1924 given self-government under the sovereignty of the new Lithuanian republic. All of the German possessions in Africa, Asia, and the Pacific became mandates of France, Japan, and England or her dominions.

Military and Naval Clauses. According to the terms of the Treaty Germany was to abolish universal military training, and her army was to be reduced to 100,000 men and 4,000 officers. The great fortress of Heligoland, and all fortifications along the eastern bank of the Rhine, were to be destroyed. The German navy was not to exceed six battleships, six light cruisers, twelve destroyers, and twelve torpedo boats. It was not to include any submarines. The personnel of the navy was to be reduced to 15,000 men, including officers.

Financial and Economic Clauses. Germany was to pay the Allies five billion dollars by May 1, 1921, for the maintenance of the Armies of Occupation, and an additional ten billion dollars as indemnity. She was required to supply enormous amounts of livestock, building materials, wood, and coal to Belgium, Italy, and France. The former Kaiser was to be surrendered for trial, but Holland refused to hand him over to the victors. These and many other conditions were accepted by the Germans. They complained bitterly that many of these terms, especially the economic and financial ones, were impossible for the German people to fulfill. The Treaty created many problems, and was criticized by several Allied statesmen

whose loyalty to their own countries could not be questioned. Seven years later, at Locarno (lô-kär'nō), Switzerland, both England and France stood ready to offer concessions and to lift many of the burdens of the Versailles Treaty from the shoulders of the German people.

Central Powers in the League of Nations. Germany, her former allies, and any other state that had not joined the League of Nations could do so if its admission were agreed to by two-thirds of the Assembly; provided that "it shall give effective guarantees of its sincere intention to observe its international obligations, and shall accept such regulations as may be prescribed by the League in regard to its military, naval, and air forces and armaments" (Article I). By 1924 Austria, Bulgaria, and Hungary had been admitted, and after the Locarno Conference (October, 1925—Chapter XLI) a seat was prepared in the League for the German Republic.

Treaties with the German Allies. The Treaty of Versailles concerned Germany, but peace negotiations had to be made with the other Central Powers. A treaty with Austria was signed at Saint Germain, near Paris, in September, 1919. Two months later a settlement was made with Bulgaria at Neuilly (nû'yē) (Paris). In June, 1920, the Treaty of Trianon (one of the palaces at Versailles) was signed with Hungary. It was not until July, 1923, that a final settlement was made with Turkey at Lausanne, Switzerland.

Treaty of Saint Germain. On November 11 the Emperor Charles of Austria, who had succeeded Francis Joseph in 1916, resigned all share in the government of his dominions. Hungary withdrew from the dual monarchy, and set up a government of its own. The Slavs of the former Empire had joined their kinsmen in forming the new states of Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia. The Hapsburg dominions were torn asunder, and Austria set up a Republic. By the Treaty of Saint Germain the Austrians were compelled to cede territory to Italy, Poland, Hungary, Rumania, Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia; and were reduced to an insignificant inland state of 7,000,000 people. They were forbidden to maintain a navy or an air force. Their army was to consist of but 30,000 volunteers. The Danube River was to be free to all nations. The

Republic was deprived of all seaports, but was allowed access to the Adriatic. It had to surrender its merchant ships and make heavy payments of economic goods to the Allies. The treaty further provided that the Austrians, who are German, should never unite with Germany without the consent of the League of Nations.

Austria in 1927. Austria, like all the other nations engaged in the war, had suffered during the conflict; and now by the terms of the treaty was reduced in size and her trade and commerce wrecked. Thousands of her people were out of work, starving and staggering under the penalties imposed by the Allies. The new struggling state had been admitted to the League of Nations in 1920. Two years later, when the government decided to give up the fight for a national existence, the League arranged a loan of \$135,000,000 to the downhearted Republic. The fate of Austria today, the happiness of the masses, who were not responsible for the actions of the old régime, rests upon the square deal and good will policy of the New Internationalism.

Alexander Stambulsky of Bulgaria. After the surrender of Bulgaria in September, 1918, the pro-German King Ferdinand abdicated. He was succeeded by his son, Boris III, who agreed to a reorganization of the government along more democratic lines. A cabinet was formed and the patriot peasant, Alexander Stambulsky, became prime minister. Bulgaria is primarily an agricultural country, and the majority of its people are landowning farmers. Until 1923 the Peasant Party, led by Stambulsky, controlled Bulgarian affairs. During that year the premier and all the peasant ministers were assassinated. A new cabinet was formed composed of men from the industrial and professional classes. It was with the Stambulsky government, however, that the Allies made peace in November, 1919.

Treaty of Neuilly. The Treaty of Neuilly stipulated that Bulgaria should cede territory to Rumania, Jugoslavia, and Greece. Her army was to be limited to 33,000 men, and she was forced to pay heavy reparations. Under the able leadership of Stambulsky the terms of the treaty were faithfully carried out, and Bulgaria seems to be well on the way to recovery.

Hungary. Peace negotiations with Hungary were delayed until 1920, owing to the political disorders in that country following the War. A republic was proclaimed in the latter part of 1918. It lasted about four months, when the government was overthrown by the Communists. For the next six months there was a Soviet régime based upon the Russian system. In March, 1920, the old ruling classes overthrew the Reds and a kingdom was proclaimed and a regent appointed. Three months later the regent government signed the Treaty of Trianon.

Nationalistic Movement in Turkey, 1919. The final settlement with the Turks was not made until 1923, nearly five years after the Armistice. A treaty with Turkey proved to be one of the most difficult tasks of the Allied Powers. During the war the Allies had conquered and retained the Turkish territories of Syria, Mesopotamia, and Palestine. The Arabs of western Arabia along the Red Sea, aided by British troops, won their independence from the Sultan. The independent Arabian Kingdom of Hedjaz was established, with the holy city of Mecca as its capital. These losses, with those incurred in Europe during the Balkan Wars, alarmed and angered a group of Young Turks, who in 1919 formed the Nationalist movement. The Nationalists pledged themselves to a twofold policy: to fight against any move that would further reduce Turkish territory; and to overthrow the weak and incompetent Sultan and his whole government. They argued that they were not responsible for the Sultan's actions, and should not be punished for what he had done.

Treaty of Sèvres, 1920. Mustapha Kemal Pasha, a veteran of the World War, became the leader of the new nationalist movement. An enthusiastic army was organized, and a government independent of the Sultan was set up at Angora, an inland town. In August, 1920, the government of Constantinople signed the Treaty of Sèvres (near Paris). The Turks were to surrender Smyrna and surrounding territory in Turkish Asia Minor, with Thrace in Europe, to Greece. The treaty was signed at the point of the bayonet after the Greeks had invaded Thrace. But the Angora government refused to acknowledge the treaty and prepared for war. In 1922 the Greek armies marched toward the nationalist capital.

The Turks now resorted to pre-war diplomacy. They gave Italy and France important trade and oil concessions, on condition that those two countries would not aid the Greeks in the coming struggle. The Italian and French politicians agreed to this underhanded scheme. Those unworthy politicians, who had just witnessed the bleedings, devastation, and poverty of their respective countries, either did not understand the causes of those miseries or else they did not care.

Treaty of Lausanne, 1923. The Greek army was trapped, half their number was killed, and the remainder fled. Mustapha Kemal demanded the return of Thrace and Constantinople. In July, 1923, the Treaty of Lausanne (lō'zan') was signed by the Allies and the Angora government. Constantinople was to be evacuated and handed over to Turkey. Smyrna and eastern Thrace were retained by the Turks. The treaty also provided for the compulsory exchange of Greeks in Turkey for Turks in Greece. By May 1, 1924, 1,000,000 Greeks and Armenians had left Turkish territory and 300,000 Mohammedan refugees had returned. Certain extraterritorial privileges were denied the subjects of other nations. Hereafter, foreigners were to abide by Turkish law and offenders were to be tried in Turkish courts. The Dardanelles were to be open to all nations but were under the sovereignty of Turkey. The Turks gave up all claim to the many independent Moslem states in Arabia. They recognized Syria as a mandate of France, and Mesopotamia and Palestine as mandates of Great Britain. Great Britain had released her mandatory power over Egypt in 1920, and that country had become an independent kingdom. Its political status was not disturbed by the Lausanne Treaty.

The Turkish Republic. During that same year, 1923, Turkey was proclaimed a republic and Mustapha Kemal was elected President by the National Assembly. The latter is chosen by universal manhood suffrage. The President appoints the prime minister and other cabinet members from the Assembly. The new government is building railroads, encouraging home industry and commerce, tapping its natural resources, and improving its educational system. Women are no longer forced into seclusion but have been given many of the privileges enjoyed by their sex in the western world. The

prime minister has pledged his government to pay all pre-war debts. There is no longer a Sultan or Caliphate in Turkey. Both have been abolished. These remarkable changes are due chiefly to one man, Mustapha Kemal Pasha, diplomat, soldier, and statesman. The conditions under which he has lived, worked, and achieved have marked him as one of the outstanding figures of modern times.



MUSTAPHA KEMAL PASHA

After graduation from the Military School of Constantinople Mustapha Kemal attended a German war college where he learned western efficiency in government and war.

The Treaties as a Whole. The Treaty of Lausanne was the last of the five treaties that closed the World War. As we look back now it is easy to see that these treaties contained many unwise provisions, which were to cause future trouble and conflict. But there was much that was good, and the world has profited by that. Liberty and justice were more firmly entrenched after the Treaty of Lausanne. Mankind had learned and accomplished much since the Congress of Vienna. A new political world, based in most instances upon the will of the people, had been created.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Illustrate how the international life of the Greeks and Romans manifested itself in (1) war, (2) commerce, (3) exchange of ideas.
2. In what ways were the Congress of Vienna and the Congress of Paris similar? In what ways were they different?
3. Why was it necessary to bring experts to the Paris Conference?
4. Who were the Big Three at the Congress of Vienna? In what

way did their policies differ from the Big Three at Paris? What part did public opinion play in the actions of the two groups?

5. What is your opinion of the criticism that Woodrow Wilson played petty politics at the council table in Paris?
6. Why did Great Britain and France back Wilson on the Fiume question and desert him on the Shantung controversy?
7. Give arguments (based upon Articles X and XVI) for and against our entrance into the League of Nations.
8. Compare the political machinery of the League of Nations with that of our Congress.
9. Which, if any, of the treaties do you consider harsh and why?
10. In what ways does the Republic of Turkey differ politically from our own government?
11. How do the provisions in Article XVI of the League of Nations resemble the law of the Old Hanseatic League in dealing with its member states?

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Give individual reports on the geography, industry, population, religion, and government of some of the following: Germany, Lithuania, Latvia, Esthonia, Finland, Poland, Hungary, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Bulgaria, Albania, Rumania, Hedjaz, Iraq, Arabia, Turkey, Syria, Armenia, Egypt, Georgia, and Azerbaijan. See *World Almanac* (1925); the *New World*, by Bowman; or *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*.

II. Compare the map of Europe in 1914 with that of 1926. Discuss the changes that took place and the history of those changes.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

BOWMAN	<i>The New World</i>	World Book
LANSING	<i>The Peace Negotiations</i>	Houghton
BAKER	<i>Woodrow Wilson and World Settlement</i> (3 vols.)	Doubleday
SEYMOUR	<i>Woodrow Wilson and the World War</i> (Vol. 48, Chronicles of America Series)	Yale Univ. Pr.
DANIELS	<i>Life of Woodrow Wilson</i>	Winston
GOOCH	<i>History of Modern Europe</i>	Holt

CHAPTER XL

A NEW AND CHANGING WORLD

Russia—The Communists. Political, economic, and social ideas throughout the world were recast after the World War. But it was in Russia that the most radical changes took place. We have told in Chapter XXXVIII of the Bolsheviki and their rise to power under Lenin and Trotsky. In November, 1917, a National Constituent Assembly was elected to formulate a constitution. The election was held on the basis of equal and universal suffrage. The majority of the members elected to this assembly were of the Social Revolutionary Party, of which Kerensky had been a member. The Bolsheviki, finding themselves in the minority, immediately dissolved the Assembly. Local soviets in all parts of the country not in sympathy with the Bolshevist or Communist government were dispersed and their leaders imprisoned. Lenin and Trotsky had Bolshevist troops man the polls and supervise further elections. Practically none but the Bolsheviki were allowed to vote. Consequently the Communists retained their power and Lenin headed the new republic.

Confiscation of Private Property. All rights to private property were abolished. The local soviets were permitted to seize the estates of the nobles and wealthy classes and hand them over to the poor. All industries and factories were confiscated, and their management and operation placed in the hands of the workers under government control. All natural resources and the means of transportation and communication were appropriated by the State. The Soviet Republic cancelled all foreign debts contracted by the old régime, and thereby gained the ill will of creditor nations.

Constitution of 1918. In 1918 the Bolshevist minority framed a constitution. We say minority because there were in 1923 600,000 Bolsheviki in Russia out of a total population of 130,000,000. Lenin became President of the "People's Commissioners." Compulsory military service for all Russian citizens was inaugurated, but only the soviets or laboring classes were permitted to defend the Revolution. Trotsky, as

the People's Commissioner for Military Affairs, became the leader of the new "Red" army.

The "Red Terror." There was naturally much dissatisfaction on the part of the upper and middle classes with this communistic system. Driven from their homes and stripped of their worldly possessions, they stood ready to overthrow the new autocracy. To avoid this the Bolsheviki began a reign of terror. In July 16, 1918, the Tsar Nicholas II and his family were put to death. Thousands of the nobility fled from the country and became émigrés in foreign lands. The government organized a secret police and spy system, called the Cheka. According to official Bolshevik figures, the Cheka, or Tcheeka, executed in three years 1,766,188 persons, including members of the professional classes, soldiers, workingmen, and peasants. Lenin considered these executions necessary for the success of the revolution. "We are firmly for the Red Terror against the capitalistic class," he said.

Allied Interference in Russia. The determination of Communistic Russia to overthrow the political, economic, and social structure of the whole world aroused the foreign capitalistic nations. During 1918-1919 Allied expeditionary forces, including troops from the United States and Japan, occupied Russian territory. The Allies aided and financed anti-Bolshevist uprisings in Russia. During the disturbances of 1920 the Republic of Poland declared war on the Russian Soviet. The cause was a boundary dispute. The Red armies marched to within twelve miles of Warsaw before they were stopped by Franco-Polish troops. The Reds ceded certain territories to Poland. By 1921 Lenin's government had quelled all anti-Bolshevist insurrections. The Allies gave up their military operations and removed the blockades. They refused to recognize the communist government and left Russia to solve its own problems.

Russian Union of Socialist Soviet Republics, 1924. On July 4, 1923, an all-Russian Central Executive Committee adopted a new constitution, which was ratified on January 20, 1924. This constitution provides for the union of several "Socialist Soviet Republics." These include Russia, Siberia, the Ukraine, White Russia, and the Transcaucasian Federated Socialist Soviet Republic. The last named is a union

of Armenia, Georgia, and Azerbaijan (ä'zēr-bī-jän'). The supreme power of these Soviet Republics rests with a Congress called the Central Executive Committee. It is a representative body and consists of two houses. Its delegates appoint commissariats or ministers of foreign affairs, army, navy, etc. A Supreme Court modeled on that of the United States has been established.

This constitution also provides for compulsory military service, with the right of the laboring classes to defend the revolution. It abolishes private ownership of land. Natural resources, factories, railways, and telegraph and telephone lines remain the property of the nation.

"Nep." The Russian Union of Socialist Soviet Republics—the official title of the present government—has adopted a "new economic policy," the so-called "Nep." It reserves the right to lease the factories, mines, and other industries to private individuals and corporations, with state control. Many enterprises have already been leased under this new policy. A New York company has been given permission to work the manganese fields of Georgia on a percentage or royalty basis. Many European countries have recognized in various degrees this new union. In 1924 the British Labor Party, then in power under the premiership of Ramsay MacDonald, signed a commercial treaty with Soviet representatives. The treaty also provided for a government loan. This action was one of several reasons for the defeat of the Labor Party in Great Britain at the next election.

Germany a Republic. With the abdication and flight of the Kaiser on November 9, 1918, Germany was proclaimed a republic. Friedrich Ebert, a socialist and former saddler, became President of the provisional government. The crowned rulers of the German states which had been a part of the old Empire were overthrown.

Two months later, January 19, 1919, a National Constituent Assembly was elected. Every man and woman in Germany over twenty years of age was given the right to vote in this election. Any elector could be chosen for the Assembly. On August 11, in the little town of Weimar, a constitution was adopted. It established a republican national state called the *Deutsches Reich*, and provided that all of the German states

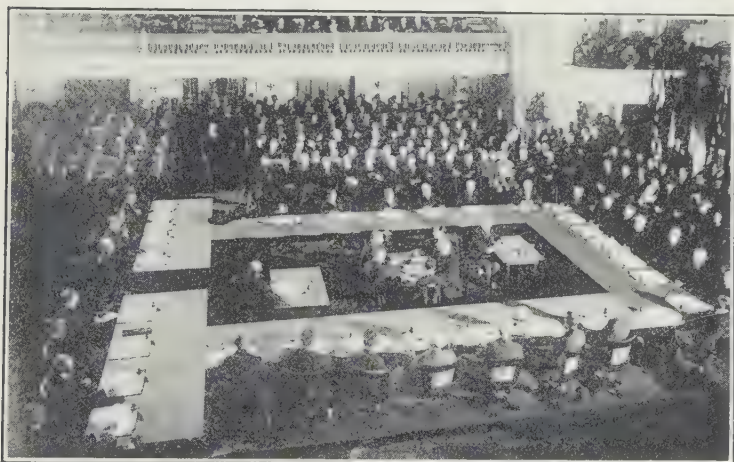
were to adopt republican constitutions. After a great deal of opposition by the Nationalist party—a group which advocated the old régime—this was accomplished and Germany became a Federated Republic.

The German Government. The government is representative and consists of two houses: an upper house, called the Reichsrath (riks'raät'), representing the states; and a lower house, the Reichstag, representing the people. The members of the Reichstag are chosen by universal suffrage, and possess legislative powers. The President is elected for a term of seven years. He appoints all the ministers, who in turn are responsible to the Reichstag. The ministry is aided in its work by an Economic Council of the Realm. This Council is made up of persons representing the different occupations, industries, professions, and sciences. Its personnel is well qualified to suggest legislation where expert advice is needed. Such a movement is a step forward in any democracy, if it is to prove fit and capable. This plan gives specialists and other people of ability a voice in the framing of laws.

Greece. After the Treaty of Lausanne, by which Turkey received eastern Thrace, a revolution broke out among the Greeks. Constantine, brother-in-law of the former German Kaiser, was forced to abdicate. In April, 1924, the people proclaimed a republic. Thus six years after the signing of the armistice there was not an absolute monarchy in all Europe. The absolutism of Metternich, of the Hapsburgs, of the Romanoffs, of the Hohenzollerns had crumbled, like that of the Tudors, the Stuarts, and the Hanoverians in England and the Bourbons in France.

The Washington Disarmament Conference, November, 1921. In July, 1921, President Harding invited Great Britain, France, Italy, and Japan to send representatives to Washington. The object of the conference was to discuss the limitation of armaments and international problems concerning the Far East. Portugal, Holland, Belgium, and China were also represented. The great Powers, at the suggestion of Secretary of State Charles Evans Hughes, declared a ten-year naval holiday. They agreed to scrap a certain number of their battleships and to postpone for ten years their programs for future naval construction. Great Britain's delegates made a

proposition to outlaw all submarines, but were overruled by the French representatives. European imperialism in China received a fatal blow when the nine Powers agreed upon the open-door policy advocated by the United States in 1901. France and England gave up their leases and withdrew from certain Chinese ports, while Japan returned Shantung. The English, American, and Japanese governments agreed to build no more naval bases or fortifications in the western Pacific, and the Anglo-Japanese Alliance of 1902 was annulled.



THE DISARMAMENT CONFERENCE

The Conference met on Armistice Day with Charles Evans Hughes presiding. According to the plan which he proposed in his opening speech, the navies of the United States and Great Britain were to be of equal strength, with that of Japan three-fifths as large and those of France and Italy somewhat smaller.

China Abrogates Unfair Treaties. There were, however, in 1927 twelve nations besides the United States, Great Britain, France, and Japan which enjoyed unequal treaty rights with China. These unequal treaties granted the foreign powers extraterritorial privileges (Chapter XXXVI), allowed them to control customs duties, and accorded them more rights in Chinese territory than the Chinese themselves enjoyed. In 1925 the Peking Government in China abrogated one of

these unequal treaties, known as the Sino-Belgian Treaty of 1866. The following year the Chinese minister to the United States, in an address in Washington, D. C., said:

"I now urge that the Powers should consider whether it will not be wise, as well as a just act upon their part, to declare their unqualified willingness to terminate forthwith all the unequal treaties which they have with China and thus surrender forever the superior position over the native Chinese which they now claim for their nationals in China. If this action is delayed it should not cause surprise if the Chinese nation should, by their own unilateral act, declare these treaties at an end."

Civil War in China, 1927. At the same time that this notice was served on the foreign powers, a great civil war was being waged in China. One faction, the Kuomintang or People's Party, commonly called the Cantonese National Party, stood for the immediate abrogation of the unequal treaties. They established a provisional government in the south, at Canton. The northern party, with its capital at Peking, also favored the abrogation of these same treaties, but was willing to allow them to terminate as they expired. It was the Cantonese party, under Dr. Sun Yat-sen, which had overthrown the Manchu dynasty in 1911, and established the republic. This party became so powerful that the successor of Sun Yat-sen "dissolved" it. Its founder was exiled, but his doctrine of "China for the Chinese" continued to spread.

German Reparations Fixed. The United States played an important part in international affairs during the German Reparations controversy. According to the Versailles Treaty, the total amount of German reparations was to be fixed by May 1, 1921. But all the countries interested felt that the question should be settled as quickly as possible. The German government could not plan an economic or financial policy until it knew what the Allies would demand. The Allies, on the other hand, could not plan until they knew what to expect from Germany. So in February, 1921, the German indemnity was fixed at a little over fifty billion dollars. This amount was to be paid in annual installments during the next forty-two years. Besides this indemnity, Germany was to continue

her deliveries of coal and wood. All exports were to be taxed a certain per cent and this revenue handed over to the Allies.

Occupation of the Ruhr, January, 1923. Germany claimed that she was unable to meet these requirements. She agreed to the terms, however, but gradually fell back in her payments. British and American statesmen began to realize that Germany's conquerors could not demand the impossible. They began to realize that the German indemnity must be based upon that country's ability to pay. The French and Belgians were insistent, and demanded either the payments or the control of German natural resources and industries. So in January, 1923, when it was reported that Germany was still behind in her payments, Franco-Belgian troops marched in and occupied the coal and iron region of the Ruhr (rōor) Valley. President Harding immediately ordered the American Army of Occupation to evacuate the Rhine and embark for home.

The Dawes Committee.

Thousands of the German people in the Ruhr district went out on strike and refused to go to work until the French troops were removed. The French refused to evacuate until Germany fulfilled the reparations agreement. Finally, the German government decided to submit the question of her capacity to pay to an international committee. The Reparations Commission appointed two committees, one of which was to make



WILL SHE EVER LEARN IT?

The economic necessity as well as the desirability of world peace have become more and more recognized in the readjustment period since the War.

a study of Germany's financial conditions at home. General Charles G. Dawes and Owen D. Young were appointed by the United States government to serve on this committee. General Dawes was elected chairman.

The Dawes Report. The Dawes Committee made a careful investigation of the German situation. In its final report the Dawes Committee recommended the following: (1) the creation of a bank, to be capitalized at 400,000,000 gold marks and controlled by German and Allied directors; (2) a mortgage of eleven billion gold marks upon Germany's state-owned railroads; (3) an additional five billion mark mortgage on German industries. The last proposal was made after the committee discovered that these industries were making large profits. This scheme would permit the Allies to share in the profits of the mortgaged industries. It was further provided that an international loan should be made to Germany, partly to capitalize the new bank and partly to enable the German government to meet expenses during the period which would be required to balance the budget.

The report proved acceptable to both Germany and France, and the French troops prepared to evacuate the Ruhr.

The British Empire. The end of the War and the demobilization of her armies found the British government confronted with many problems. Her foreign trade had fallen off during the War and this had to be built up. A million men in England alone were out of work in 1925 and dependent upon government aid. The housing conditions, as was the case in all Europe, were deplorable. Besides these difficulties, British subjects at home and in the foreign possessions were growing restless.

The Irish Free State. Parliament had passed the Home Rule Bill for Ireland in 1914, but had postponed putting it into operation when the World War began. During the war a party arose in Ireland which demanded complete independence. The Sinn Feiners (*shĭn fān'ēr*z), as these independents were called, rebelled in 1916. The revolt was quelled by the British government. But when fifteen of the leaders were executed and hundreds thrown into prison, thousands of the Irish rallied to the Sinn Fein standard. Many who had formerly been for Home Rule now joined in the demand for independence. For three years following 1918 there was guerrilla warfare in Ireland between the Sinn Feiners on one side and the English and Ulsterites (North of Ireland people) on the other. In 1921 a compromise was reached. An Irish Free

State was formed with its own parliament, army, and chief executive. This new government did not include Ulster, which preferred to remain with the mother country. The country was not to be independent of Great Britain, but was given the same degree of self-government as Canada, Australia, and South Africa.

India—Gandhi. A group of Nationalists in India, headed by Mohandas (Mahatma) Gandhi, became dissatisfied with British rule after the war and demanded self-government. Gandhi wielded a strong influence over both the Mohammedan and the Hindu population. He and his followers adopted a policy of non-cooperation with Great Britain. They boycotted English goods, and refused to serve in the British armies or to accept civil positions under the government. They withdrew their children from the English schools and resisted British rule in every way possible. The Government of India Act was passed in 1919. This act provided for the gradual self-government of the people. But still Gandhi and his followers resisted. Rebellions occurred throughout India, and in 1920 Gandhi was arrested and sentenced to prison for six years. He was released a few years later by the Labor government in England under Ramsay MacDonald. The 45 Indian races, the 170 languages, the 2,000 castes, and the many religions are all factors which keep the people of India divided.

The Kingdom of Egypt. Swinging back to the Nile River and Egypt, where our story began, we find that country now an independent State. Once the cradle of civilization, and then for thousands of years submerged by successive invaders, the Kingdom of Egypt was organized in April, 1923. England gave up its protectorate and recognized the new government.

Iraq. Within the Fertile Crescent, Mesopotamia became a mandate of Great Britain in 1920. An independent kingdom was established called Iraq. A son of the King of Hedjaz was proclaimed ruler, and the ancient city of Bagdad became the capital. A treaty (1922) provided for the British protection of Iraq's interests. The country has a rich soil and contains an abundance of petroleum.

Mosul. A boundary dispute arose with Turkey concerning the territory of Mosul. Both Great Britain, acting for Iraq,

and the Turks claimed the district. Turkish attacks across the Mosul frontiers became frequent, and during the latter part of 1924 the dispute was referred to the League of Nations. A commission was appointed to fix a permanent boundary, and both countries stood ready to abide by the decision. Great Britain has made arrangements to give up its mandatory powers as soon as Iraq enters the League of Nations.

France in Syria and Morocco, 1925. The Arabs in the French mandate of Syria rose in rebellion in October, 1925. France bombarded with heavy artillery and bombing planes the ancient city of Damascus. The press throughout the world condemned this barbarous act—this massacre of innocent women and children. The Moslem tribes gathered and proclaimed a Holy War. Many of the French people demanded that their government evacuate and cease the exploitation of Syria. They expressed a like opinion concerning French Morocco, where French troops were engaged in war against the Riffs (Arabs around the Riff Mountains) during the same year. These outrages occurred while the world was still mourning for France over German barbarity in 1914. The French leaders were called to task not only by their own people, but by the world in general.

Italy, 1919-1922. For nearly three years following the Treaty of Versailles the internal affairs of Italy were in a deplorable state. The railroads and other industries were poorly managed, unemployment increased, strikes became frequent, prices rose, and a few profiteers grew rich. Dissatisfaction and rioting spread throughout the country. The extreme radicals took advantage of these conditions to foster discontent among the people. The Communists attempted to seize the industries in several large cities and imitate Soviet Russia. The government was unable to cope with the situation and one ministry after another was overthrown after a short lease of life.

The Fascisti. In order to offset these disturbing conditions, and to fight communism, an organization called the Fascisti (fä-shē'stô) was formed. Its membership was recruited from the ranks of demobilized soldiers and adventure-some youths. Dressed in green knickerbockers and black shirts, and armed with sticks, knives, and revolvers, the Fascisti made war on profiteers, communism, and political

corruption. They fought terrorism with terrorism; and as they paraded through towns and cities, singing their martial airs, their membership grew.

Benito Mussolini. The head and organizer of Fascism was Benito Mussolini. He was the son of a village blacksmith and early in life was acquainted with toil. He worked and studied and as a young man joined the Socialist party. Mussolini rose to a position of prominence within his party and became editor of its leading paper. His radical views were resented by the Italian authorities, and he suffered imprisonment and exile in Switzerland. When Italy entered the war Mussolini returned to his native land, and joined the army. He fought in the front line trenches, was decorated for bravery, was severely wounded and discharged from service. He left the Socialist party and began to advocate national unity, solidarity, and patriotism among the Italian people. He gained control of a newspaper, and as its editor worked unceasingly for nationality. It was for the purpose of putting his ideas into action that he organized the Fascist movement.

Becomes Premier. In October, 1922, the Fascisti marched into Rome. The King offered no resistance, but immediately placed Mussolini at the head of the government. The new premier set to work diligently and brought order out of chaos. He suppressed Communistic propaganda. Under his dictatorship industry, commerce, and the financial situation steadily improved. Mussolini in 1923 was the idol of the Italian people. But gradually his popularity at home and abroad began to wane. In the elections of 1923 armed Fascisti guarded the polls and resorted to fraud so as to insure a majority of Mussolini supporters in the Parliament. This shook the confidence of many Italian people.

The Corfu Affair. In 1923, under the auspices of the League of Nations, a Commission had been appointed to mark out a boundary between Albania and Greece. On August 27 the five Italian members were assassinated along the Greco-Albanian frontier. Mussolini demanded from Greece a formal apology, the payment of a heavy indemnity, and a salute by the Greek fleet to the Italian fleet. Greece objected to these demands on the grounds that it had not been proved that the assassins were Greeks. They asked that the whole

affair be referred to the League. Mussolini, although his country was a leading nation in the world covenant, refused this request. He ignored his international obligations and defied the League of Nations. Italian warships bombarded and killed Greek citizens on the island of Corfu (kōr-foo'). The Council of the League appointed an investigating committee, which reported the following month. Italy was forced to evacuate Corfu, but the Greek government was ordered to pay the indemnity and have her fleet salute the Italian fleet.

Mussolini's Armistice Day Speech, 1925. Mussolini has done much for the Italian government, and his influence will,



THE DICTATOR OF ITALY CALLS HIS CABINET TOGETHER FOR THE DAILY GRIND

A cartoon aimed at Mussolini's autocratic methods of government.

as he says, be stamped on Italian history. But his attitude toward international affairs leaves much to be desired. In his 1925 Armistice Day speech he warned the world that if the Italian frontiers were ever questioned he would immediately "move toward war." The press of the world criticized this speech, and that night in Italy an unsuccessful attempt was made to assassinate him.

Greco-Bulgarian Flare-up, October, 1925. Despite the attitude of the Italian Dictator, the League did not become a dead letter in European affairs. On the morning of October 19, 1925, Greek and Bulgarian troops began firing upon one another along the frontiers. Both nations prepared for war. To the outside world it appeared that another conflict was to be waged in the troubled Balkans. For ages the Balkan peninsula had been the camping ground for invading peoples. The ancient Hellenes, as early as 2000 B.C., had migrated to that fertile land. Then from the great Eurasian Enclosure during the fifth and sixth centuries had come Goths, Huns, Lombards, Slavs, and Bulgars. These peoples were followed by the Northmen, and later all were submerged by the conquering Turks. Differences in race, language, custom, and creed had kept the peninsula in constant turmoil. The peace treaties that closed the World War could not erect boundaries which would quell the hard feelings and animosities among the Balkan States. For this reason the world anxiously awaited the outcome of the flare-up on that October morning of 1925.

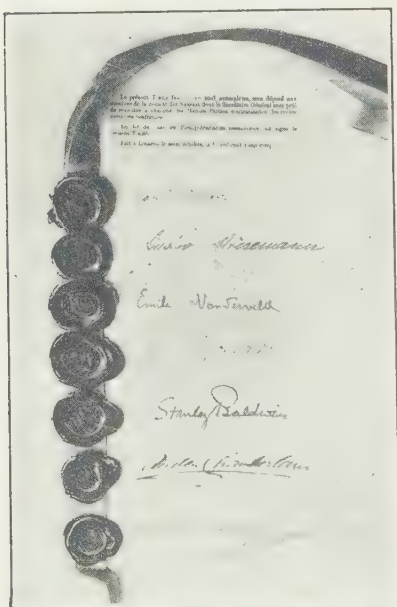
The League Averts War. Within a few days, however, Europe was at ease. The League of Nations acted quickly. The Council called an emergency meeting in Paris. An ultimatum was sent to Greece and Bulgaria demanding cessation of hostilities. Both countries accepted the ultimatum of the Council and agreed to submit the whole affair to the League. The invading forces withdrew to their own frontiers and peace settled over the land.

The Allied Debt Question. About the same time the American government was adopting a policy which showed its good will. The Allied nations owed our government some eleven billion dollars. In most cases these debts represented goods shipped to the Allies during the war. We could not col-

lect in goods, because that would have thrown many of our workers out of employment. We could not collect the entire amount at once, because our debtors did not have the money. If we collected too large an amount in yearly installments it would work a hardship to those people, and at the same time inflate our own currency to such an extent that prices would soar. Several years were spent in conferences, agreements, and disagreements between the United States and European countries. Finally, for the benefit of all concerned, President Coolidge and Secretary of the Treasury Mellon adopted the

following policy. They agreed that the nations should pay according to their capacity or ability. The interest rates were reduced and the final payments extended over a longer period of time.

The World Court. Another vital question of international importance is the move inaugurated by President Harding and continued by President Coolidge to have the United States enter a World Court. This would, if accepted and agreed to by all nations, permit Americans to participate in international court proceedings without becoming a member of the League of Nations. In 1926 the Senate voted that the United States should enter the World Court—with reservations. The following year, 1927, the League refused to accept those reservations.



THE SIGNATURES TO THE
LOCARNO TREATY

The representatives of the seven nations were: Dr. Luther and Dr. Stresemann for Germany; M. Vandervelde for Belgium; M. Briand for France; Mr. Baldwin and Sir Austen Chamberlain for Great Britain; Signor Scialoja for Italy; Count Skrzynski for Poland, and Dr. Benes for Czechoslovakia.

Allied Military Control of Germany Ended. The most significant post-war agreement was that drawn up at Locarno, Switzerland, in October, 1925. By the terms of that pact the peace of the Franco-German frontier was to be guarded by France and Germany as well as by Great Britain, Italy, and Belgium. The French further agreed to evacuate Cologne by February, 1926. The German government accepted the proposal to conclude treaties of compulsory arbitration with France, Belgium, Poland, and Czechoslovakia. Germany was given a place in the Council of the League. Thus the German Republic was placed on a plane of equality with the Allies. In fact, the word "Allies" became a thing of the past; the "war after the war" was closed; and Germany became a partner in the European family of nations.

On January 31, 1927, it was decided to end the Allied military control of Germany, and replace that arrangement by a Committee under the control of the League of Nations Council.

The British Commonwealth of Nations. The Locarno Peace Pact had a profound effect upon the political structure of the British Empire. At an Imperial Conference held at London, in the latter part of 1926, the status of the British Empire was completely changed. The Locarno Pact had caused a great deal of dissatisfaction among the self-governing Dominions, which were not represented. England had assumed definite obligations for the Empire. One article of that agreement, it is true, released the Dominions from these obligations unless they should voluntarily assume them. But this was not enough; the Dominions were looking to the future.

At the Imperial Conference (1926) the following declaration was adopted: "The rapid evolution of the oversea dominions during the past fifty years has involved many complicated adjustments of old political machinery to changing conditions. The tendency toward equality of status was both right and inevitable. . . . Every self-governing member of the Empire is master of its own destiny. In fact, if not always in form, it is subject to no compulsion whatever."

Canada has appointed its first minister to the United States; and the other Dominions are demanding the same privilege of representation in foreign countries. The Dominions have be-

come virtually independent of the mother country. Thus has the British Colonial Empire become a great British Commonwealth of Nations—another sign of the New Internationalism.

Summary. We have traced the story of mankind from pre-historic times to the present. We have shown how man is slowly and painfully learning to cooperate with his fellows. We have discussed the great Epochs or movements in history. We have emphasized the fact that these Epochs are not sharply defined, but gradually merge into one another. History is a continuous process.

The people of the Greco-Roman world were the heirs of the good and the evil handed down from Egypt and the Fertile Crescent. Imperial Rome was overrun by the barbarian invaders and an age of fusion resulted. Art, literature, and science were submerged during this period. Feudalism was established in an attempt to bring order out of chaos. It was followed by a rebirth of the old learning, as well as by a growth of centralized power which resulted in absolutism. National rivalries, colonial expansion, and political revolutions were the results of that absolutism. Scientific progress and social reform were accompanied by renewed expansion, imperialism, and conflict. The mistakes of the past enable the people of the present to understand the necessity for a new international code. Thus history shows us that each generation is but a link to bind the Past to the Future.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. How was the absolutism of the Tsars responsible for the Russian Revolution? Explain the autocracy of the Bolsheviki, and show how they imitated the tyranny of the Old Régime.
2. Compare the methods of the Cheka with those of the Revolutionary Tribunal during the French Revolution.
3. How did the doctrines of Karl Marx affect (1) England, (2) France, (3) Italy, (4) Germany, (5) Russia, (6) the United States?
4. Do you think an organization similar to the German Economic Council of the Realm would prove beneficial in the government of the United States? Give reasons for and against such a movement.
5. Trace the history of the rise and fall of absolutism in (1)

England, (2) France, (3) Germany, (4) Russia, (5) Poland, (6) the Balkans.

6. Name and explain four circumstances under which the United States has assumed a leadership in international affairs since 1916.
7. Why did England give Ireland autonomy and refuse India the same privilege?
8. What effect has Mussolini had on Italian history? Comment on his attitude in the Corfu affair, and on his Armistice Day speech of 1925.
9. What is a mortgage? In what way will the mortgages provided for in the Dawes report aid German creditors? What is meant by an inflation of the currency? What effect does it have on wages and prices?
10. Explain several ways in which the Locarno Pact strengthened the League of Nations.
11. Give arguments for and against the entrance of the United States into the World Court.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REPORTS

I. Read some of the following chapters in Bowman's *The New World*: VI, The Democratic Drift in Spain; VII, Portugal; VIII, The Scandinavian Countries and Holland; IX, Switzerland; XXVIII, The Transcaucasian Land of the Nomad; XXXI, The Far East—China and Japan; XXXII, The Pacific Realm and Australia; XXXIII, African Colonies of the European Powers.

II. Reports from John Spargo's *The Greatest Failure in All History* will aid in making clear: the Soviet Constitution prior to 1924; the Reign of Terror; the Land Problem; the Factory System under Bolshevism. Emma Goldman's *My Disillusionment in Russia* gives a vivid account of the "Red Ark"; the leading figures in the Bolshevik government; the people and conditions under that government; and the work of the Cheka.

III. Make a summary of each Epoch of World Progress, with a brief discussion of the problems, events, and people who played important rôles in those movements.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

COLEMAN	<i>The Far East Unveiled</i>	Houghton
MEARS	<i>Modern Turkey</i>	Macmillan
ROSS	<i>The Russian Bolshevik Revolution</i>	Century
ROSS	<i>The Russian Soviet Republic</i>	Century

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|--------------|---------------------------------------|----------|
| RUHL | <i>New Masters of the Baltic</i> | Dutton |
| BUCHAN (Ed.) | <i>The Nations of To-day</i> | Houghton |
| | 1. <i>British America</i> | |
| | 2. <i>Balkan and Caucasian States</i> | |
| | 3. <i>Japan</i> | |
| | 4. <i>India</i> | |
| | 5. <i>Belgium</i> | |

CHRONOLOGY OF PERSONS AND EVENTS

NOTE: This list is inserted with the thought that it will aid the pupil in reviewing at a glance and reëstablishing chronological relationships.

B. C.	
4241	Earliest date in recorded history. First Egyptian calendar
(about) 3400	Reign of Menes, founder of the first dynasty in Egypt
(about) 3000	Bronze implements used by the Egyptians
(about) 3000-2700	Age of the Egyptian Pyramid builders
(about) 3000	Rise of Cretan Civilization
(about) 3000-2000	Legendary Era of China
(about) 2750	Sargon I conquers the Sumerians along the Fertile Crescent
(about) 2500-2300	The Twelfth Dynasty or Egypt's Golden Age
(about) 2200-1154	Beginnings of Hereditary Rule in China
(about) 2100	Hammurabi conquers all of Babylonia
(about) 1985-1575	Age of the Hyksos or Shepherd Kings in Egypt
(about) 1900	The Hebrew Nation founded by Abraham
(about) 1580-1150	The Period of the Egyptian Empire
(about) 1500	Iron used by the Egyptians
(about) 1500	Early Hellenic Tribes establish themselves in the Peloponnesus
(about) 1300	Exodus of the Israelites from Egypt
(about) 1100	The Trojan War
(about) 1050	David becomes King of Palestine
(about) 1000	Commercial supremacy of the Phœnicians
776	First Greek Olympiad
753	Founding of Rome (legendary)
727	Israel conquered by the Assyrians
700	Formation of the Assyrian Empire
600	Fall of Nineveh
594	Solon chosen Archon of Athens
551	Birth of Confucius in Shantung
(about) 539	Defeat of Belshazzar and the Chaldean Army by Cyrus the Persian. During this century

B. C.

- Siddhartha Gautama (the Buddha) began his teachings in India
- 509 Formation of the Roman Republic
- 492 First Persian invasion of Greece
- 490 Second Persian invasion of Greece
- 490 Battle of Marathon
- 480 Third Persian invasion of Greece
- 480 Battle of Thermopylæ
- 480 Battle of Salamis
- 479 Battle of Platæa
- 460-429 Age of Pericles in Greece
- 399 Death of Socrates
- 390 Rome captured by the Gauls
- 367 Formation of the Licinian Laws in Rome
- 360 Philip becomes King of Macedonia
- 334 Battle of Granicus
- 333 Battle of Issus
- 331 Battle of Arbela
- 323 Death of Alexander the Great
- 322 Death of Aristotle and Demosthenes
- 312 Construction of the Appian Way
- 300 Introduction of gladiatorial combats into Rome
- 290 Rome conquers the Samnites
- 287 Birth of Archimedes
- 264-241 First Punic War
- 220 Shi-Huang-Ti begins the construction of the Great Wall of China
- 218-201 Second Punic War
- 202 Defeat of Hannibal at Zama
- 149 Third Punic War
- 146 Destruction of Carthage
- 134 Tiberius Gracchus formulates the Agrarian Laws
- 106 Birth of Cicero
- 100 Birth of Julius Cæsar
- 91-88 Social Wars in Rome
- 63 Cataline's Conspiracy
- 63 Pompey conquers Palestine
- 58-50 Cæsar conquers Gaul
- 49 Cæsar crosses the Rubicon
- 49 Battle of Pharsalus
- 49 Death of Pompey
- 44 Cæsar made Dictator of Rome for life

B. C.	
44	Death of Cæsar
42	Battle of Philippi
31	Battle of Actium
27	Augustus the first Roman Emperor
4	Birth of Jesus of Nazareth
A. D.	
14	Death of Augustus Cæsar
14-37	Reign of Tiberius Cæsar
(about) 29	Jesus of Nazareth crucified
54-68	Reign of Nero
69-79	Reign of Vespasian. During this reign the Colosseum at Rome was built
64	Burning of Rome and persecution of the Christians
70	Destruction of Jerusalem by Titus
117-138	Reign of Hadrian Construction of the Hadrian Wall in Britain and the Rhine-Danube Wall in western Europe Pantheon built
161-180	Reign of Marcus Aurelius
284-305	Reign of Diocletian
312	Constantine accepts Christianity
325	Council of Nicaea
404	Last Roman Triumph
404	Last Gladiatorial Combat
410	Sack of Rome by the Gauls
440-461	Leo the Great, Bishop of Rome
451	Attila the Hun defeated at Chalons on the Marne River
455	Sack of Rome by the Vandals
476	Fall of the Roman Empire in the West
527-565	Reign of Justinian, Roman Emperor of the East (Justinian Code)
570	Birth of Mohammed
596	Missionaries under St. Augustine sent to Britain to convert the Anglo Saxons
622	The Hegira
711-714	Conquest of Spain by the Saracens
717-718	Defeat of the Mohammedans by Leo the Isaurian at Constantinople

A. D.	
732	Battle of Tours
800	Charlemagne crowned Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire
820	Formation of the Saxon Heptarchy by Egbert
843	Treaty of Verdun
871-901	Reign of Alfred the Great
878	Treaty of Wedmore
936-973	Reign of Otto the Great
962	Erection of the Hospice of St. Bernard
1016	Canute becomes King of England
1066	Battle of Hastings
1073	Hildebrand elected Pope
1077	Scene at Canossa
1079-1143	Peter Abelard (Famous Schoolman, University of Paris)
1088	University of Bologna founded
1095	Council of Clermont
1096-1099	First Crusade
1099	Fall of Jerusalem
1122	Concordat of Worms
1140	Portugal becomes an independent kingdom
1147-1149	Second Crusade
1152	Frederick Barbarossa becomes Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire
1189-1192	The Third Crusade
1202-1261	The Fourth Crusade
1209	Organization of the Franciscan Friars
1212	Children's Crusade
1215	Magna Carta sealed by King John
1214-1295	Roger Bacon
1237	Death of Jenghiz Khan
1254-1324	Marco Polo
1259-1294	Reign of Kublai Khan in China
1265-1321	Dante
1265	Beginning of the English House of Commons
1273	Austria acquired by the Hapsburgs
1302	First meeting of the French Estates General
1303	Pope Boniface VIII a prisoner at Anagni
1304-1374	Petrarch
1324-1384	John Wyclif
1331-1355	Stephen Desau, Czar of Serbia
1346	Battle of Crécy

A. D.	
1347	Black Death
1378-1418	The Great Schism
1381	Peasants' Revolt in England
1409	Council of Pisa
1414	Council of Constance
1415	Death of John Huss
1431	Death of Joan of Arc
(about) 1450	John Gutenberg sets up his printing press in Germany
1452-1498	Savonarola
1452-1520	Raphael
1453	Fall of Constantinople
1455-1485	War of the Roses in England
1462-1505	Rule of Ivan the Great in Russia
1475-1564	Michelangelo
1479	Union of Castile and Aragon in Spain
1483	Birth of Martin Luther
1486	Bartholomew Dias reaches the Cape of Good Hope
1491-1556	Ignatius Loyola
1492	Moors driven from Spain
1492	Columbus reaches the West Indies
1494	Treaty of Tordesillas
1498	Third voyage of Columbus to America
1498	John Cabot explores Newfoundland for England
1499	Formation of the Swiss Confederation
1509-1564	John Calvin
1509-1547	Henry VIII
1513	Balboa discovers the Pacific Ocean
1517	Luther posts his ninety-five Theses
1519-1521	Cortez conquers Mexico
1519	Magellan circumnavigates the Globe
1520	Luther burns the Papal Bull
1521	Diet of Worms
1524	Verrazzano explores eastern coast of America for France
1526	Diet of Speyer
1530	The Augsburg Confession
1543	Copernicus publishes his theory of the Solar System
1555	Peace of Augsburg
1558-1603	Reign of Queen Elizabeth

A. D.	
1574	Siege of Leyden
1588	Destruction of the Spanish Armada
1581	Dutch Declaration of Independence from Spain
1589-1610	Reign of Henry IV, First Bourbon King of France
1598	Edict of Nantes
1600	English East India Company chartered by Queen Elizabeth
1603	James I becomes King of England
1604	French settle Port Royal in America
1607	English settle Jamestown
1608	French settle Quebec
1609	Henry Hudson explores the Hudson River for the Dutch
1610	Death of Henry IV of France
1611	French settle Montreal
1611	King James version of the English Bible
1616	Death of Shakespeare
1618-1648	Thirty Years' War
1620	Pilgrims settle Plymouth
1620	Negro slavery introduced into Virginia
1628	Petition of Right
1628	Huguenot Power in France broken
1632	Maryland founded
1632	Battle of Lutzen
1636	Founding of Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Harvard College
1638	New Haven founded
1642-1649	Civil War in England
1643-1715	Reign of Louis XIV in France
1644	End of the Ming Dynasty in China
1645	Battle of Marston Moor
1648	Treaty of Westphalia
1648	Pride's Purge
1649	Execution of Charles I of England
1649-1660	Cromwell rules England
1663	Restoration of Charles II
1664	English take possession of New Amsterdam and call it New York
1682	Founding of Pennsylvania
1685	Revocation of the Edict of Nantes
1687	Theory of gravitation published by Newton

A. D.	
1688	Glorious Revolution in England
1689-1697	War of the Palatinate in Europe (Called King William's War in America)
1689-1725	Peter the Great of Russia
1689	English Bill of Rights
1701	English Act of Settlement
1701-1713	War of the Spanish Succession (Known in America as Queen Anne's War)
1703	Founding of St. Petersburg (now Leningrad)
1706	Thomas Newcomen invents a steam engine
1707	Breakup of the Mogul Empire in India
1713	Peace of Utrecht
1714-1727	George I, King of England
1721-1742	Robert Walpole, first prime minister of England
1725	Russian settlement of Alaska
1725	Birth of Robert Clive
1732	Birth of George Washington
1733	Georgia settled
1733	John Kay invents the flying shuttle
1753	Siege of Arcot
1757	Battle of Plassey, India
1756-1763	Seven Years' War
1760	Invention of the blast furnace
1762-1796	Reign of Catherine the Great of Russia
1763	Peace of Paris
1769	Birth of Napoleon Bonaparte
1772	First Partition of Poland
1775-1783	The American Revolution
1776	Adam Smith publishes his <i>Wealth of Nations</i>
1779	Samuel Crompton invents the spinning mule
1785	James Hargreaves invents the spinning jenny
1789	Beginning of the French Revolution
1789	July 14, Fall of the Bastille
1789	August 26, Declaration of the Rights of Man
1793	Samuel Slater begins the textile industry in the United States
1793	Execution of Louis XVI
1793	Second Partition of Poland
1795	Formation of the Directory
1785	Third Partition of Poland
1799	Death of Washington
1800	Treaty of San Ildefonso

A. D.	
1800	Ireland united to Great Britain
1801	Treaty of Luneville
1802	Treaty of Amiens
1803	United States purchases Louisiana Territory
1804	Napoleon Bonaparte crowned Emperor of France
1805	Battle of Trafalgar
1805	Battle of Austerlitz
1806	Battle of Jena
1806	Battle of Friedland
1806	Great Britain seizes the Dutch colony of South Africa
1806	Treaty of Tilsit
1807	Birth of Garibaldi
1807	Fulton makes a trial trip with the Clermont
1808	Napoleon invades Portugal
1808	Spanish Revolt against Napoleon
1809	Birth of Abraham Lincoln
1809	Battle of Wagram
1809	Birth of William Gladstone
1810	Argentine and Chile revolt against Spanish Tyranny
1810	Birth of Cavour
1812	Napoleon's invasion of Russia and retreat from Moscow
1812	June 18, United States declares war on England
1813	Battle of the Nations (Leipzig)
1813	Birth of David Livingstone
1814	Napoleon banished to Elba
1814	George Stephenson invents a locomotive
1815	Passage of the Corn Laws in England
1815	Battle of Waterloo
1815	Napoleon banished to St. Helena
1815	Andrew Jackson's victory at New Orleans
1815	Congress of Vienna
1815	Formation of the Holy Alliance
1817	Serbia gains its partial independence from Turkey
1818	Formation of the Quintuple Alliance
1818	Karl Marx born
1820	Congress of Troppau

A. D.	
1821	People of Moldavia and Wallachia revolt against Turkey
1822	Congress of Verona
1823	Promulgation of the Monroe Doctrine
1824	Repeal of the Combination Acts in England
1827	Battle of Navarino
1829	Treaty of Adrianople
1829	Greece wins its independence
1830	July Revolution in France
1831	Belgium becomes independent
1832	Reform Bill in England
1833	The New York <i>Sun</i> , first penny newspaper in the United States
1837-1901	Reign of Queen Victoria
1839	Neutrality of Belgium guaranteed
1834	England emancipates all slaves in South Africa
1840	Samuel F. B. Morse invents the telegraph
1840-1842	The Opium War in China
1843	Treaty of Nanking
1844	Five treaty ports of China opened to American Commerce
1847	France annexed Algeria
1848	Paris Insurrection
1848	Second French Republic
1848	Assembly of Frankfurt
1848	Kossuth leads the Hungarian Revolt
1848	Flight of Metternich
1848	Revolution in Italy
1853-1856	Crimean War
1857	Sepoy Mutiny in India
1860	Garibaldi conquers Sicily
1861-1865	Civil War in America
1861	France establishes an Empire in Mexico
1864	Bismarck begins war against Denmark
1866	Prussia's Seven Weeks' War with Austria
1867-1912	Mutsuhito reigns in Japan
1867	Second English Reform Bill
1867	Introduction of the gas engine
1868	Completion of the Suez Canal
1869	Kimberley diamond fields discovered
1870	Franco-Prussian War
1871	Death of Livingstone

A. D.

- 1871 Fall of Paris
- 1874-1875 Balkan States revolt against Turkey
- 1874 Queen Victoria made Empress of India
- 1875 Third French Republic
- 1878 Congress of Berlin
- 1881 Formation of the American Federation of Labor
- 1882 Formation of the Triple Alliance
- 1885 Leopold II assumes sovereignty over the Belgian Congo
- 1894-1895 Chino-Japanese War
- 1895 The Jameson Raid in South Africa
- 1897 Germany takes possession of Shantung
- 1898 The Fashoda affair
- 1898 Spanish American War
- 1898 The United States annexes the Hawaiian Islands
- 1899-1902 The Boer War
- 1899 First Hague Conference
- 1900 The Boxer Rebellion
- 1900 Formation of the Australian Commonwealth
- 1902 The Anglo-Japanese Alliance
- 1903 Langley experiments with his flying machine
- 1904 Formation of the *Entente Cordiale*
- 1904-1914 Construction of the Panama Canal
- 1904-1905 The Russo-Japanese War
- 1905 Treaty of Portsmouth
- 1905 Revolution in Russia
- 1905 Algeciras Conference
- 1905 Separation of Church and State in France
- 1907 The Agadir Incident
- 1907 The Second Hague Conference
- 1908 The Turkish Revolution
- 1911 The Turko-Italian War
- 1913 The Second Balkan War
- 1914 June 28—Archduke Francis Ferdinand of Austria assassinated
- July 28—Austria declares war on Serbia
- August 1—Germany declares war on Russia
- August 3—Germany declares war on France
- August 4—Germany invades Belgium
- August 4—Great Britain declares war on Germany
- August 23—Japan declares war on Germany

A. D.	
	September 5-10—First Battle of the Marne
	October—First Battle of Ypres
1915	November—Turkey joins the Central Powers
	April 22—Second Battle of Ypres (Poison gas used for the first time)
	May—Italy joins the Allies
	May 7—The Lusitania sunk
1916	May 31—Battle of Jutland
	July—Battle of Verdun begins
	August—Rumania joins the Allies
1917	February 24—The Zimmermann message intercepted
	March 15—The Russian Revolution
	April 6—United States enters War on side of Allies
1918	March 3—Treaty of Brest-Litovsk
	March 21—Great German offensive begins
	May—Battle of Château-Thierry
	September 12, 13—Americans blot out the St. Mihiel Salient
	September 29—Surrender of Bulgaria
	October 31—Surrender of Turkey
	November 3—Armistice signed with Austria-Hungary
	November 9—Germany proclaimed a Republic
	November 11—Armistice with Germany signed
1919	January 18—Opening of the Peace Conference at Paris
	June 28—Peace treaty with Germany signed at Versailles
	November—Treaty of Neuilly
1920	Treaty of Sèvres
1920	November—First session of the League of Nations, held at Geneva, Switzerland
1920	Treaty of Trianon
1920	Poland declares war on Russia
1921	August—United States signs a separate treaty with Germany, which formally closes the war
1921	Washington Disarmament Conference
1921	Formation of the Irish Free State
1922	Mussolini becomes Premier of Italy
1922	Formation of the International Court of Justice

A. D.	
1923	Formation of the Turkish Republic
1923	Treaty of Lausanne
1923	Occupation of the Ruhr
1923	The affair of Corfu
1924	Greece proclaimed a Republic
1925	Arabs in Syria rise in rebellion against France
1925	French engage in war against the Riffs
1925	The Locarno Pact
1926	Formation of the British Commonwealth of Nations
1927	Civil War in China
1927	First transoceanic telephone communication

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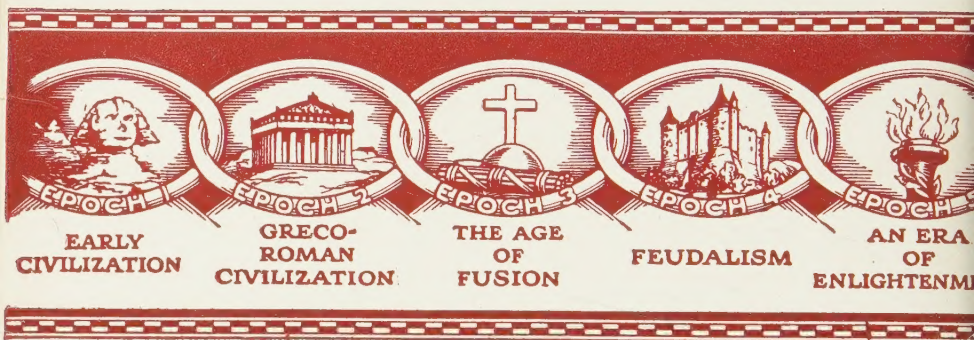
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**OLUTISM
COLONIAL
PANSION**



**A CENTURY
OF POLITICAL
REVOLUTIONS**



**SCIENTIFIC
PROGRESS AND
SOCIAL REFORM**



**IMPERIALISM
AND
CONFLICT**



**THE NEW
INTER-
NATIONALISM**

